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LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

CHARLES E. BENNETT

PROFESSOR OF LATIN IN CORNELL UNIVERSITY

ALLYN AND BACON

Boston and Chicago

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PREFACE.

The object of this book is to present the essential facts of Latin grammar in a direct and simple manner, and within the smallest compass consistent with scholarly standards. While intended primarily for the secondary school, it has not neglected the needs of the college student, and aims to furnish such grammatical information as is ordinarily required in undergraduate courses.

The experience of German educators in recent years has tended to restrict the size of school-grammars of Latin, and has demanded an incorporation of the main principles of the language in compact manuals of 250 pages.¹ Within the past decade, several grammars of this scope have appeared which have amply met the exacting demands of the full Gymnasial Latin course, — a period of study representing quite as much reading as that covered by the average American undergraduate.

The publication in this country of a grammar of similar plan and scope seems fully justified at the present time, as all recent editions of classic texts summarize in introductions the special idioms of grammar and style peculiar to individual authors. This makes it feasible to dispense with the enumeration of many minutiae of usage which would otherwise demand consideration in a student's grammar.

In the chapter on Prosody, I have designedly omitted all special treatment of the lyric metres of Horace and Catullus, as

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¹ One of the most eminent of living Latinists, Professor Eduard Wölfflin, of Munich, has expressed the opinion that the essentials may be given within even smaller compass than this. See his Preface to the Schmalz-Wagener *Lateinische Grammatik*, 1891.

well as of the measures of the comic poets. Our standard editions of these authors all give such thorough consideration to versification that repetition in a separate place seems superfluous.

In the matter of 'hidden quantities,' I have conformed to Lewis's Latin Dictionary for Schools, and the same editor's later Elementary Latin Dictionary. In several cases this procedure has involved a sacrifice of convictions as to the actual quantity of vowels; but the advantages of uniformity in our educational practice seemed, for the present at least, to warrant this concession of personal views.

The discussion of inflectional forms and of the development of case and mood constructions has been reserved for the *Appendix* for *Teachers*, where these and some other matters receive full and systematic consideration.

To several of my colleagues, who have generously assisted me with their advice and criticism during the preparation and printing of this book, I desire to offer my sincerest thanks, especially to Professors H. C. Elmer and B. I. Wheeler, of Cornell University, Professor Alfred Gudeman, of the University of Pennsylvania, Professor George L. Hendrickson, of the University of Wisconsin, and Professors Francis W. Kelsey and John C. Rolfe, of the University of Michigan.

C. E. B.

ITHACA, N. Y., Dec. 15, 1894.

PREFACE TO FOURTH EDITION.

In this edition I have marked all long vowels in conformity with the lists contained in my Appendix for Teachers (p. 52 ff.). Lewis, whose Latin Dictionaries I had originally followed, has meanwhile, in the last edition of the Elementary Dictionary, accepted my markings in a majority of the cases wherein I had expressed dissent from him.

C. E. B.

ITHACA, Feb. 10, 1896.

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PART I.

SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

THE ALPHABET.

- 1. The Latin Alphabet is the same as the English, except that the Latin has no w.
- 1. K occurs only in *Kalendae* and a few other words; y and z were introduced from the Greek about 50 B.C., and occur only in foreign words chiefly Greek.
- 2. With the Romans, who regularly employed only capitals, \mathbf{I} served both as vowel and consonant; so also \mathbf{V} . For us, however, it is more convenient to distinguish the vowel and consonant sounds, and to write \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{u} for the former, \mathbf{j} and \mathbf{v} for the latter. Yet some scholars prefer to employ \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{u} in the function of consonants as well as vowels.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

- 2. I. The Vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y. The other letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are ae, oe, ei, au, eu, ui.
- 2. Consonants are further subdivided into Mutes, Liquids, Nasals, and Spirants.
- 3. The Mutes are p, t, o, k, q; b, d, g; ph, th, oh. Of these,
 - a) p, t, c, k, q are voiceless, i.e. sounded without voice or vibration of the vocal chords.
 - b) b, d, g are voiced, i.e. sounded with vibration of the vocal chords.

¹ For 'voiceless,' 'surd,' 'hard,' or 'tenuis' are sometimes used.

² For 'voiced,' 'sonant,' 'soft,' or 'media' are sometimes used.

- c) ph, th, oh are aspirates. These are confined almost exclusively to words derived from the Greek, and were equivalent to p + h, t + h, c + h, i.e. to the corresponding voiceless mutes with a following breath, as in Eng. loop-hole, hot-house, block-house.
- 4. The Mutes admit of classification also as

Labials, p, b, ph.
Dentals (or Linguals), t, d, th.
Gutturals (or Palatals), c, k, q, g, ch.

- 5. The Liquids are 1, r. These sounds were voiced.
- 6. The Nasals are m, n. These were voiced. Besides its ordinary sound, n, when followed by a palatal mute, also had another sound, that of ng in sing, the so-called n adulterinum; as, —

anceps, double, pronounced angceps.

- 7. The Spirants (sometimes called Fricatives) are f, s, h. These were voiceless.
 - 8. The Semivowels are j and v. These were voiced.
- 9. Double Consonants are x and z. Of these, x was equivalent to cs, while the equivalence of z is uncertain. See § 3. 3.
- 10. The following table will indicate the relations of the consonant sounds:—

Mutes,	VOICELESS. p, t, c, k, q,	Voiced. b, d, g,	Aspirates. ph, th, ch,	(Labials). (Dentals). (Gutturals).
Liquids,		1, r,		
Nasals,		m, n,		
Spirants	f,s,h,	·		(Labial). (Dental). (Guttural).
Semivowels,	• -	j, v.		(

a. The Double Consonants, x and z, being compound sounds, do not admit of classification in the above table.

SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

3. The following pronunciation (often called Roman) is substantially that employed by the Romans at the height of their civilization; *i.e.* roughly, from 50 B.C. to 50 A.D.

I. Vowels.

	as in father;		as in the first syllable of aha;
ē	as in <i>they</i> ;	ě	as in <i>met</i> ;
ī	as in machine;	ĭ	as in <i>pin</i> ;
ō	as in note;	ŏ	as in <i>obey, melody</i> ;
ũ	as in <i>rude</i> ;	ŭ	as in <i>put</i> ;

y like French u, German \ddot{u} .

2. Diphthongs.

- ae like ai in aisle;oe like oi in oil;ei as in rein;
- au like ow in how;
- eu with its two elements, ĕ and ŭ, pronounced in rapid succession;
- ui occurs almost exclusively in cui and huic. These words are pronounced as though written kwee and wheek.

3. Consonants.

- b, d, f, h, k, 1, m, n, p, qu are pronounced as in English, except that bs, bt are pronounced ps, pt.
- c is always pronounced as k.
- t is always a plain t, never with the sound of sh as in Eng. oration.
- g always as in get; when ngu precedes a vowel, gu has the sound of gw, as in anguis, languidus.
- j has the sound of y as in yet.
- r was probably slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue.
- s always voiceless as in sin; in suadeo, suavis, suesco, and in compounds and derivatives of these words, su has the sound of sw.
- v like w.
- x always like ks; never like Eng. gz or s.
- z uncertain in sound; possibly like Eng. zd, possibly like z. The latter sound is recommended.
- The aspirates **ph**, **ch**, **th** were pronounced very nearly like our stressed Eng. **p**, **c**, **t**—so nearly so, that, for practical purposes, the latter sounds suffice.
- Doubled letters, like 11, mm, tt, etc., should be so pronounced that both members of the combination are distinctly articulated.

SYLLABLES.

4. There are as many syllables in a Latin word as there are separate vowels and diphthongs.

In the division of words into syllables, -

- A single consonant is joined to the following vowel; as, vo-lat, ge-rit.
- 2. Doubled consonants, like tt, ss, etc., are always separated; as, vit-ta, mis-sus.
- 3. In case of other combinations of consonants, such as can stand at the beginning of a word are joined to the following vowel; as, ma-gi-strī, dī-gnus, tō-xī.
- 4. But compounds are separated into their component parts; as, per-it, ab-rādit.

QUANTITY.

5. A. Quantity of Vowels.

A vowel is *long* or *short* according to the length of time required for its pronunciation. No absolute rule can be given for determining the quantity of Latin vowels. This knowledge must be gained, in large measure, by experience; but the following principles are of aid:—

I. A vowel is long,1-

- a) before nf, ns, and before gn in nouns and adjectives in -gnus, -gna, -gnum; as, Infāns, dīgnus, sīgnum.
- b) when the result of contraction; as, nīlum for nihilum.
- c) before j; as, hūjus.

2. A vowel is short, —

- a) before nt, nd; as, amant, amandus. A few rare exceptions occur in cases of compounds whose first member has a long vowel; as, nondum (non dum).
- b) before another vowel, or h; as, meus, trahō. Some exceptions occur, chiefly in proper names derived from the Greek; as, Aenēās.

NOTE.—Occasionally we meet with vowels that are sometimes long, sometimes short. Such vowels are called *common*. The variation appears only in poetry. Examples are the first vowel in **Dǐāna**, ŏhē.

¹ In this book, long vowels are indicated by a horizontal line above them; as, **ā**, **i**, **5**, *etc.* Vowels not thus marked are short. Occasionally a curve is set above short vowels; as, **ĕ**, **ǔ**.

B. Quantity of Syllables.

Syllables are distinguished as *long* or *short* according to the length of time required for their pronunciation. Their quantity is governed by the following principles:—

A syllable is long,1—

- a) if it contains a long vowel; as, mater, magnus, dius.
- b) if it contains a diphthong; as, causae, foedus.
- c) if it contains a short vowel followed by x, z, or any two consonants (except a mute with 1 or r); as, axis, gaza, restō.
- 2. A syllable is short, if it contains a short vowel followed by a vowel or by a single consonant; as, mea, amat.
- 3. Sometimes a syllable varies in quantity, viz. when its vowel is short and is followed by a mute with 1 or r, i.e. by pl, cl, tl; pr, cr, tr, etc.; as, ägrī, volŭcris.² Such syllables are called common. In prose they were regularly short, but in verse they might be treated as long at the option of the poet.

Note. — These distinctions of *long* and *short* are not arbitrary and artificial, but are purely natural. Thus, a syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants, as ng, is long, because such a syllable requires *more time* for its pronunciation; while a syllable containing a short vowel followed by one consonant is short, because it takes *less time* to pronounce it. In case of the common syllables, the mute and the liquid blend so easily as to produce a combination which takes scarcely more time than a single consonant. Yet by separating the two elements (as ag-rī) the poets were able to use such syllables as long.

ACCENT.

- 6. 1. Words of two syllables are accented upon the first; as, tégit, mórem.
- 2. Words of more than two syllables are accented upon the penult (next to the last) if that is a long syllable, otherwise upon the antepenult (second from the last); as, amávī, amántis, míserum.
- * 3. The enclitics -que, -ne, -ve, -ce, -met, -dum always throw an accent back upon the preceding syllable, when the simple word is accented on the antepenult; as, miseráque, hominéque.
- 4. Sometimes the final -e of -ne and -ce disappears, but without affecting the accent; as, tantón, istíc, illúc, vidén (for vidésne).

¹ To avoid confusion, the quantity of syllables is not indicated by any sign.

² But if the 1 or r introduces the second part of a compound, the preceding syllable is always long; as, abrumpo.

- 5. In utrăque, each, and plērăque, most, -que is not properly an enclitic; yet these words accent the penult, owing to the influence of their other cases,—utérque, utrúmque, plērámque.
- 6. But in other words, -que does not throw back an accent unless it is a true enclitic, meaning and. Thus, regularly, dénique, úndique, útique, ítaque; but if itaque means and ... so (-que being enclitic), it is accented itaque.

VOWEL CHANGES.1

7. I. In Compounds, —

- a) ĕ before a single consonant becomes ĭ; as,—
 colligō for con-legō.
- b) a before a single consonant becomes 1; as,—
 adigo for ad-ago.
- c) a before two consonants becomes e; as,—
 expers for ex-pars.
- d) as becomes I; as,—

conquirō for con-quaerō

e) au becomes ū, sometimes ō; as,—
 conclūdō for con-claudō;
 explōdō for ex-plaudō.

2. Contraction. Concurrent vowels were frequently contracted into one long vowel. The first of the two vowels regularly prevailed; as,—

 trēs
 for
 tre-es;
 cōpia
 for
 co-opia;

 mālō
 for
 ma(v)elō;
 cōgō
 for
 co-agō;

 amāstī
 for
 amā(v)istī;
 cōmō
 for
 co-emō;

 dēbeō
 for
 dē(h)abeō;
 jūnior
 for
 ju(v)enior.

 nīl
 for
 nihil;

Parasitic Vowels. In the environment of liquids and nasals a parasitic vowel sometimes develops; as,—

vinculum for earlier vinclum.

So perfoulum, saeculum.

Syncope. Sometimes a vowel drops out by syncope; as,—
 ārdor for āridor (cf. āridus);
 valdē for validē (cf. validus).

¹ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

CONSONANT CHANGES.1

- Rhotacism. An original s between vowels became r; as,—
 arbōs, Gen. arboris (for arbosis);
 genus, Gen. generis (for genesis);
 dirimō (for dis-emō).
- 2. dt, tt, ts each give s or ss; as, -

pēnsum for pend-tum;
versum for vert-tum;
mīles for mīlet-s;
sessus for sedtus;
passus for pattus.

3. Final consonants were often omitted; as, -

cor for cord; lac for lact.

- 4. Assimilation of Consonants. Consonants are often assimilated to a following sound. Thus: accurrō (adc-); aggerō (adg-); asserō (ads-); allātus (adl-); apportō (adp-); attulī (adt-); arrīdeō (adr-); afferō (adf-); occurrō (obc-); suppōnō (subp-); offerō (obf-); corruō (comr-); collātus (coml-); etc.
- 5. Partial Assimilation. Sometimes the assimilation is only partial. Thus:
 - a) b before s or t becomes p; as,—scrīpsī (scrīb-sī), scrīptum (scrīb-tum).
 - b) g before s or t becomes o; as,—āctus (āg-tus).
 - c) m before a dental or guttural becomes n; as,—
 eundem (eum-dem); prīnceps (prīm-ceps).

PECULIARITIES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

- 9. Many words have variable orthography.
- 1. Sometimes the different forms belong to different periods of the language. Thus, quom, voltus, volnus, volt, etc., were the prevailing

¹ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

forms almost down to the Augustan Age; after that, cum, vultus, vulnus, vult, etc. So optumus, māxumus, lubet, lubīdō, etc., down to about the same era; later, optimus, māximus, libet, libīdō, etc.

2. In some words the orthography varies at one and the same period of the language. Examples are exspecto, expecto; existo, existo; epistula, epistola; adulēscēns, adolēscēns; paulus, paullus; cottīdiē, cottīdiē; and, particularly, prepositional compounds, which, even in those cases where actual assimilation took place in the spoken language (§ 8. 4), often made a concession to the etymology in the spelling; as,—

ad-gerō or aggerō; ad-serō or asserō; ad-liciō or alliciō; in-lātus or illātus; ad-rogāns or arrogāns; sub-moveō or summoveō; and many others.

- 3. Compounds of jació were usually written sició, déició, adició, obició, etc., but were probably pronounced as though written adjició, objició, etc.
- 4. Adjectives and nouns in -quus, -quum; -vus, -vum; -uus, -uum preserved the earlier forms in -quos, -quom; -vos, -vom; -uos, -uom, down through the Ciceronian age; as, antIquos, antIquom; saevos; perpetuos; equos; servos. Similarly verbs in the 3d plural present indicative exhibit the terminations -quont, -quontur; -vont, -vontur; -uont, -uontur, for the same period; as, relinquont, loquontur; vīvont, metuont.

The older spelling, while generally followed in editions of Plautus and Terence, has not yet been adopted in our prose texts.

PART II.

INFLECTIONS.

- 10. The Parts of Speech in Latin are the same as in English, viz. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections; but the Latin has no article.
- 11. Of these eight parts of speech the first four are capable of Inflection, i.e. of undergoing change of form to express modifications of meaning. In case of Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns, this process is called Declension; in case of Verbs, Conjugation.

CHAPTER I. — Declension.

A. NOUNS.

- 12. A Noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or quality; as, Caesar, Caesar; Roma, Rome; penna, feather; virtus, courage.
- 1. Nouns are either Proper or Common. Proper nouns are permanent names of persons or places; as, Caesar, Rōma. Other nouns are Common; as, penna, virtūs.
 - 2. Nouns are also distinguished as Concrete or Abstract.
 - a) Concrete nouns are those which designate individual objects;
 as, mons, mountain; pes, foot; dies, day; mens, mind.

Under concrete nouns are included, also, collective nouns; as, legio, legion; comitatus, retinue.

 Abstract nouns designate qualities; as, constantia, steadfastness; paupertas, poverty.

GENDER OF NOUNS.

13. There are three Genders, — Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter. Gender in Latin is either natural or grammatical.

Natural Gender.

- 14. The gender of nouns is natural when it is based upon sex. Natural gender is confined entirely to names of persons; and these are
 - Masculine, if they denote males; as, —
 nauta, sailor; agricola, farmer.
 - 2. Feminine, if they denote females; as, mater, mother; regina, queen.

Grammatical Gender.

by the general signification of the word, or the ending of its Nominative Singular. By grammatical gender, nouns denoting things or qualities are often Masculine or Feminine, simply by virtue of their signification or the ending of the Nominative Singular. The following are the general principles for determining grammatical gender:—

A. Gender determined by Signification.

1. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Months are Masculine; as, —

Sēquana, Seine; Eurus, east wind; Aprīlis, April.

2. Names of *Trees*, and such names of *Countries*, *Towns*, and *Islands* as end in -us, are Feminine; as, — quercus, oak; Pontus, Pontus; Corinthus, Corinth; Rhodus, Rhodes.

Other names of countries, towns, and islands follow the gender of their endings (see B, below); as,—

Delphī, m.; Leuctra, n.; Latium, n.; Tībur, n.; Carthāgō, f.

3. Indeclinable nouns are Neuter; as, —

nihil, nothing; nefās, wrong.

NOTE. — Exceptions to the above principles sometimes occur; as, Allia (the) river), f.

B. Gender determined by Ending of Nominative Singular.

The gender of other nouns is determined by the ending of the Nominative Singular.¹

NOTE I.— Common Gender. Certain nouns are sometimes Masculine, sometimes Feminine. Thus, sacerdos may mean either priest or priestess, and is Masculine or Feminine accordingly. So also cīvis, citizen; parēns, parent; etc. The gender of such nouns is said to be common.

Note 2.— Names of animals usually have grammatical gender, according to the ending of the Nominative Singular, but the one form may designate either the male or female; as, anser, m., goose or gander. So vulpes, f., fox; aquila, f., eagle.

NUMBER.

16. The Latin has two Numbers,—the Singular and Plural. The Singular denotes one object; the Plural, more than one.

CASES.

17. There are six Cases in Latin:—

Nominative, Case of Subject;

Genitive, Objective with of;
Dative, Objective with to or for;

Accusative, Case of Direct Object;

Vocative, Case of Address:

Ablative, Objective with by, from, in, with.

¹ The great majority of all Latin nouns come under this category. The principles for determining their gender are given under the separate declensions.

- I. LOCATIVE. Vestiges of another case, the Locative (denoting place where), occur in names of towns and in a few other words.
- 2. OBLIQUE CASES. The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called Oblique Cases.
- 3. STEM AND CASE-ENDINGS. The different cases are formed by appending certain case-endings to a fundamental part called the Stem. Thus, portam (Accusative Singular) is formed by adding the case-ending -m to the stem porta. But in most cases the final vowel of the stem has coalesced so closely with the actual case-ending that the latter has become more or less obscured. The apparent case-ending thus resulting is called a termination.

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.

18. There are five Declensions in Latin, distinguished from each other by the final letter of the Stem, and also by the Termination of the Genitive Singular, as follows:—

DECLENSION.	FINAL LETTER OF STEM.	GEN. TERMINATION.
First	ā	-ae
Second	ŏ	-T
Third	\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	-ĭs
Fourth	ŭ	-tis
Fifth	8	-ĕī

Cases alike in Form.

- 19. 1. The Vocative is regularly like the Nominative, except in the Singular of nouns in -us of the Second Declension.
 - 2. The Dative and Ablative Plural are always alike.
- 3. In Neuters the Accusative and Nominative are always alike, and in the Plural end in -ă.
- 4. In the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions, the Accusative Plural is regularly like the Nominative.

¹ The Stem is often derived from a more primitive form, called the **Root**. Thus, the stem **porta**- goes back to the root **per-, por-.** Roots are monosyllabic. The addition made to a root to form a stem is called a **Suffix**. Thus in **porta**- the suffix is -ta-.

FIRST DECLENSION.

ā-Stems.

20. Pure Latin nouns of the First Declension regularly end, in the Nominative Singular, in -x, weakened from -x, and are of the Feminine Gender. They are declined as follows:—

Porta, gate; stem, portā-.

		SINGULAR.	
C	ASES.	Meanings.	TERMINATIONS
Nom.	port a	a gate (as subject)	-ă
Gen.	portae	of a gate	-ae
Dat.	port ae	to or for a gate	-ae
Acc.	port am	a gate (as object)	-am
Voc.	porta	O gate!	- ă
Abl.	portā	with, by, from, in a gate	· -ā
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	portae	gates (as subject)	-ae
Gen.	port ārum	of gates	-ārum
Dat.	port īs	to or for gates	- īs
Acc.	port ās	gates (as object)	-ās
Voc.	portae	O gates!	-ae
Abl.	port is	with, by, from, in gates	- ī s

1. The Latin has no article, and porta may mean either a gate or the gate; and in the Plural, gates or the gates.

Peculiarities of Nouns of the First Declension.

- 21. I. EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER. Nouns denoting males are Masculine; as, nauta, sailor; agricola, farmer; also Hadria, Adriatic Sea.
 - 2. Rare Case-Endings,
 - a) An old form of the Genitive Singular in -ās is preserved in the combination pater familiās, father of a family; also in māter familiās, fīlius familiās, fīlia familiās. But the regular form of the Genitive in -ae is also admissible in these expressions; as, pater familiae.
 - b) In poetry a Genitive in -aī also occurs; as, aulaī.

- c) The Locative Singular ends in -ae; as, Rômae, at Rome.
- d) A Genitive Plural in -um instead of -ārum sometimes occurs; as, Dardanidum instead of Dardanidārum. This termination -um is not a contraction of -ārum, but represents an entirely different case-ending.
- e) Besides the regular ending -is, we find also -abus in the Dative and Ablative Plural of dea, goddess, and filia daughter, especially when it is important to distinguish these nouns from the corresponding forms of deus, god, and filius, son. A few other words sometimes have the same peculiarity; as, libertabus (from liberta, freedwoman), equabus (mares), to avoid confusion with libertis (from libertus, freedman) and equis (from equus, horse).

Greek Nouns.

22. These end in -8 (Feminine); -8s and -8s (Masculine). In the Plural they are declined like regular Latin nouns of the First Declension. In the Singular they are declined as follows:—

Arc	hiās, <i>Archias</i> .	Epitomē, epitome.	Comētēs, comet.
Nom.	Archi ās	epit omē	comēt ēs
Gen.	Archiae	epitom ēs	comēt ae
Dat.	Archiae	epitomae	comēt ae
Acc.	Archiam (or -	in) epitom ēn	comët ën
Voc.	Archia	epitom ē	comēt ē (or - ă)
Abl.	Archi ä	epitom ē	comētē (or -ā)

- 1. But most Greek nouns in -ā become regular Latin nouns in -a, and are declined like porta; as, grammatica, grammar; mūsica, music; rhētorica, rhetoric.
 - 2. Some other peculiarities occur, especially in poetry.

SECOND DECLENSION.

ŏ-Stems.

23. Pure Latin nouns of the Second Declension end in -us, -er, -ir, Masculine; -um, Neuter. Originally -us in the Nominative of the Masculines was -os, and -um of the Neuters -om. So also in the Accusative.

Bellum, war;

Nouns in -us and -um are declined as follows:-

Hortus, garden;

	stem, horto			э шо- .
		SINGULAR	. .	
		TERMINATION.		TERMINATION.
Nom.	hortus	-us	bellum	-um
Gen.	hort ī	- T	bell ī	-1
Dat.	hort ō	- 5	bellō	-ō
Acc.	hortum	-um	bell um	-um
Voc.	horte	-e	bell um	-um
Abl.	horto	- ō	bell ö	-8
		PLURAL.	•	
Nom.	hortI	- T	bella	-a
Gen.	hort ōrum	-ōrum	bell õrum	-õru m
Dat.	hort īs	-īs	bell īs	-īs
Acc.	hort ös	-ōs	bell a	-a
Voc.	hort ī	-1	bella	-a
Abl.	hort īs	-Is	bell īs	-īs

Nouns in -er and -ir are declined as follows: --

Puer, boy;	Ager, field;	Vir, man;
stem, puerŏ	stem, agrŏ	stem, virŏ
Trouble to	200,8-0	210111, 11111

		SINGULAR.		Termination.
Nom.	puer	ager	vir	Wanting
Gen.	puer ī	agrī	vir ī	-ī
Dat.	puer ō	agrō	virō	-ō
Acc.	puerum.	agrum	vir um	-um
Voc.	puer	ager	vir	Wanting
Abl.	puerō	agrō	vir ō	- ō
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	puerI	agrī	vir ī	-1
Gen.	puer ōrum	agrðrum	vir ōrum	-ōrum
Dat.	puer īs	agr īs	vir īs	-īs
Acc.	puer ōs	agr ōs	virōs	-ōs
Voc.	puer ī	agr ī	vir ī	-1
Abl.	puer īs	agrīs	vir īs	-Is

I. Note that in words of the type of puer and vir the final vowel of the stem has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular.

In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of ager, the stem is further modified by the development of e before r.

2. The following nouns in -er are declined like puer: adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; Liber, Bacchus; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening; and compounds in -fer and -ger, as signifer, armiger.

Nouns in -vus, -vum, -quus.

24. Nouns ending in the Nominative Singular in -vus, -vum, -quus, exhibited two types of inflection in the classical Latin, — an earlier and a later, — as follows:—

Earlier Inflection (including Caesar and Cicero).

Servos, m., slave. Aevom, n., age. Equos, m., horse.

SINGULAR.

Nom.	servos	aevom	equos
Gen.	servī	aevī	equi
Dat.	servō	aevõ	equō
Acc.	servom	aevom	equom
Voc.	serve	aevom	eque
Abl.	servõ	aevõ	equδ

Later Inflection (after Cicero).

SINGULAR.

Nom.	servus	aevum	equus
Gen.	servi	aevī	equi
Dat.	servō	aevō	equō
Acc.	servum	aevum	equum
Voc.	serve	aevum	eque
Abl.	servõ	aevõ	equō

1. The Plural of these nouns is regular, and always uniform.

Peculiarities of Inflection in the Second Declension.

- 25. 1. Proper names in -ius regularly form the Genitive Singular in -ī (instead of -iī), and the Vocative Singular in -ī (for -ie); as, Vergilī, of Vergil, or O Vergil (instead of Vergilī, Vergilie). In such words the accent stands upon the penult, even though that be short.
- 2. Nouns in -ius and -ium, until after the beginning of the reign of Augustus (31 B.C.), regularly formed the Genitive Singular in -I (instead of -iI); as,—

Nom. ingenium filius Gen. ingénī fili

These Genitives accent the penult, even when it is short.

3. Filius forms the Vocative Singular in -I (for -ie); viz., fili, O son!

4. Deus, god, lacks the Vocative Singular. The Plural is inflected as follows:—

Nom.	đī	(deī)
Gen.	deōrum	(deum)
Dat.	dīs	(deīs)
Acc.	deōs	•
Voc.	₫ī	(deī)
Abl.	dīs	(dels)

- 5. The Locative Singular ends in -I; as, CorinthI, at Corinth.
- 6. The Genitive Plural has -um, instead of -orum,
 - a) in words denoting money and measure; as, talentum, of talents; modium, of pecks.
 - b) in duumvir, triumvir, decemvir; as, duumvirum.
 - c) sometimes in other words; as, liberum, of the children; socium, of the allies.

Exceptions to Gender in the Second Declension.

- 26. 1. The following nouns in -us are Feminine by exception:
 - a) Names of countries, towns, islands, trees—according to the general rule laid down in § 15. 2.
 - b) Five special words, -

alvus, belly;
carbasus, flax;
colus, distaff;
humus, ground;
vannus, winnowing-fan.

- c) A few Greek Feminines; as,—
 atomus, atom;
 diphthongus, diphthong.
- 2. The following nouns in -us are Neuter: --

pelagus, sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus, crowd.

С

Greek Nouns of the Second Declension.

27. These end in -os, -os, Masculine or Feminine; and -on, Neuter. They are mainly proper names, and are declined as follows:—

Barbitos, m. and f., lyre.	Androgeos, m., Androgeos.	īlion , n., <i>Troy</i> .
Nom. barbitos	Androge ōs	Īlion
Gen. barbit ī	Androgeō, -I	Īli ī
Dat. barbitō	Androge ō	Īlið
Acc. barbiton	Androge ō , - ōn	Īli on
Voc. barbite	Androge ōs	Îlion
Abl. barbit ō	Androge ō	Īliō

- 1. Nouns in -os sometimes form the Accusative Singular in -um, instead of -on; as, Dēlum, Delos.
 - 2. The Plural of Greek nouns, when it occurs, is usually regular.
- 3. For other rare forms of Greek nouns the lexicon may be consulted.

THIRD DECLENSION.

- 28. Nouns of the Third Declension end in -a, -9, -7, -5, -y, -o, -1, -n, -r, -s, -t, -x. The Third Declension includes several distinct classes of Stems,
 - I. Pure Consonant-Stems.
 - II. I-Stems.
- III. Consonant-Stems which have partially adapted themselves to the inflection of 1-Stems.
- IV. A very few Stems ending in a long vowel or a diphthong.
 - V. Irregular Nouns.

I. Consonant Stems.

29. I. In these the stem appears in its unaltered form in all the oblique cases; so that the actual case-endings may be clearly recognized.

Per ...

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Sections IO-27 (inclusive.)
Omit:Sections 22,24,25(c),26(I),b.c.
Read: 10-15(4).
Learn: I5 A(1,2,3),20,21(1),c,e,23,25 and 26
Outline review: -
Gender by meaning:
      1. Mas. - Rivers, winds, months.
      2. Fem. - Trees, Countries, Islands, towns in
First Dec .- Generally feminine.
      Endings: -ă, -ae, -ae, am, ă, ā; -ae, -arun, īs,
            as and is.
Second dec.-Mas.--us,-er,-ir; Heut.,-um.
      E_{\text{ndings:-us}}(-,-u_{\text{m}}),-i,-o,u_{\text{m}},-o;-i(-a),
            -orum, -is, -os, and-is.
Translate: Caesar, Chap. I.
Vocabualry:
Roma, -ae, f., Rome.
                        penna, -ae, f., feather. -
Sequana, -ae, f., Seq. | mensa, -ae, f., table.
Hadria, -ae, M. Adriatic porta, -ae, f. gate.
nauta.-ae, M. sailor. stella, -ae, f. star.
agricala, -ae, M. farmer a maila, -ae, c.eagle.
regina, -ae, f., queen. grammatica, -ae, f.gram
filia, -ae, f. daughter musica, -ae, f. nusic.
filius, i, m/son.
                         rhetorica, ae, f. rhetoric
                        dea -ae f.gooddess.
deus, i, m.god.
puer, -eri, m.boy.
vir,-i,meman.
virus, -i, N. poison .
                        hortus, -i, m. garden.
relagus,-i,N/sea.
                        bellu .-i, n/war.
 uleus -i n/
                        2 Ser, -pi m. field.
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Write in Lat in:

- I. Caesar saw (vidit) the erowd at Rome.
- 2. The sailors sent gifts (dona miserunt) to the daughters of the farmers.
- 3. The feathers were on the table (abl.)
- 4. The men drank (biberunt)poison.
- 5. the boy entered (intravit) the garden gate.

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2. Consonant-Stems fall into several natural subdivisions, according as the stem ends in a Mute, Liquid, Nasal, or Spirant.

A. Mute-Stems.

- 30. Mute-Stems may end, -
 - 1. In a Labial (b or p); as, trab-s; princep-s.
 - 2. In a Guttural (g or c); as, rēmex (rēmeg-s); dux (duc-s).
 - 3. In a Dental (d or t); as, lapis (lapid-s); mīles (mīlet-s).

1. STEMS IN A LABIAL MUTE (b, p).

31 .	Trabs,	f., beam.	Prīnceps,	m., chief.

		SINGULAR.	TERMINATION.
Nom.	trab s	prīncep s	-8
Gen.	trab is	prīncip is	-is
Dat.	trab ī	prīncip ī	-ī
Acc.	trabem	prīncip em	-em
Voc.	trab s	princeps.	-8
Abl.	trabe	prīncipe	-е
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	trab ēs	prīncip ēs	-ēs
Gen.	trabum	prīncip um	-um
Dat.	trabi bus	prīncip ibus	-ibus
Acc.	trab ēs	prīncip ēs	-ēs
Voc.	trab ēs	prīncip ēs	-ēs
Abl.	trabibus	prīncip ibus	-ibu s

2. STEMS IN A GUTTURAL MUTE (g, c).

32. In these the termination -s of the Nominative Singular unites with the guttural, thus producing -x.

	Rēmex, m	., rower.	Dux, c., leader.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	rēme≖	rēmig ēs	du≖	ducēs
Gen.	rēmig is	rēmigu m	ducis	duc um
Dat.	rēmig ī	rēmig ibus	duc ī	duc ibus
Acc.	rēmig em	rēmig ēs	duc em	duc ēs
Voc.	rēme ≭	rēmig ēs	du≖	ducēs
Abl.	rēmig e	rēmig ibus	duc e	duc ibus

3. STEMS IN A DENTAL MUTE (d, t).

33. In these the final d or t of the stem disappears in the Nominative Singular before the ending -s.

Lapis, m., stone.			Mīles, m., soldier.		
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Nom.	lapis	lapid ēs	mīle s	mīlit ēs	
Gen.	lapid is	lapidum	mīlit is	mīlit um	
Dat.	lapid ī	lapid ibus	mīlit ī	mīlit ibus	
Acc.	lapid em	lapid ēs	mīlit em	mīlitēs	
Voc.	lapis	lapid ēs	mīle s	mīlit ēs	
Abl.	lapid e	lapid ibus	mīlit e	mīlit ibus	

B. Liquid Stems.

34. These end in -1 or -r.

Vigil, m., watchman.	Victor, m., conqueror.	Aequor, n., sea.
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. vigil	victor	aequor
Gen. vigilis	victōr is	aequoris
Dat. vigilī	victōr ī	aequor T
Acc. vigilem	victōr em	aequor
Voc. vigil	victor	aequor
Abl. vigile	victōr e	aequor e
	PLURAL.	
Nom. vigilēs	victōr ēs	aequora
Gen. vigilum	victõr um	aequorum
Dat. vigilibus	victōr ibus	aequor ibus
Acc. vigilēs	victōr ēs	aequora
Voc. vigilēs	victōr ēs	aequora
Abl. vigilibus	victõr ibus	aequor ibus

- 1. Masculine and Feminine stems ending in a liquid form the Nominative and Vocative Singular without termination.
- 2. The termination is also lacking in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular of all neuters of the Third Declension.

C. Nasal Stems.

35. These end in -n,1 which often disappears in the Nom. Sing.

Leō, m., lion.		., lion.	Nômen, n., name.		
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Nom.	leō	leōn ēs	nōmen	nōmin a	
Gen.	leōn is	leõn um	nōmin is	nōmin um	
Dat.	leōn ī	leōn ibus	nōmin ī	nōmin ibus	
Acc.	leōnem	leōn ēs	nōmen	nōmin a	
Voc.	leō	leōn ēs	nōmen	nōmi na	
Abl.	leõn e	leōnibus	nōmin e	nõmin ibus	

D. s-Stems.

36. Mõs, m., custom	Genus, n., race.	Honor, m., honor.
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. mõs	genus	honor
Gen. mōris	gener is	honōr is
Dat. morī	generī	honōr ī
Acc. mōrem	genus	honōrem
Voc. mõs	genus	honor
Abl. mōre	gener e	honōr e
	PLURAL.	
<i>Nom</i> . mōr ēs	genera	honõr ēs
Gen. mörum	gener um	honõr um
Dat. mõribus	generibus	hon ōribus
Acc. mōr ēs	genera	honör ës
Voc. mõr ēs	genera	_ honör ës
Abl. mõri bus	gener ibus	honō ribus

I. Note that the final s of the stem becomes r (between vowels) in the oblique cases. In some words (honor, color, and the like) the r of the oblique cases has, by analogy, crept into the Nominative, displacing the earlier s, though the forms honos, colos, etc., also occur, particularly in early Latin and in poetry.

¹ There is only one stem ending in -m, — hiems, hiemis, winter.

II. I-Stems.

A. Masculine and Feminine 1-Stems.

37. These regularly end in -is in the Nominative Singular, and always have -ium in the Genitive Plural. Originally the Accusative Singular ended in -im, the Ablative Singular in -I, and the Accusative Plural in -Is; but these endings have been largely displaced by -em, -e, and -Es, the endings of Consonant-Stems.

38. Tussis, f., cough; Ignis, m., fire; Hostis, c., enemy; stem, tussi. stem, Igni. stem, hosti-.

		SINGULAR.		TERMINATION.
Nom.	tuss is	īgn is	hostis	-is
Gen.	tuss is	īgn is	host is	-is
Dat.	tuss ī	īgn ī	host ī	- ī
Acc.	tuss im	īgn em	hostem	-im, -em
Voc.	tuss is	īgn is	hosti s	-is
Abl.	tuss ī	īgn ī or -e	host e	-e, -Ī
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	tuss ēs	īgn ēs	host ës	-ēs
Gen.	tuss ium	īgn ium "	hostium	-ium
Dat.	tuss ibus	īgn ibus	host ibus	-ibus
Acc.	tuss īs or -ēs	īgn īs or -ē s	host īs or -ēs	-īs, - ēs
Voc.	tuss ēs	īgn ēs	host ës	-ēs
Abl.	tuss ibus	īgn ibus	host ibus	-ibus

To the same class belong —

*amussis, <i>rule</i> .	corbis, basket.	scobis, sawdust.
apis, bee.	cr ātis , <i>hurdle</i> .	*secūris, axe.
auris, <i>ear</i> .	*febris, fever.	sēmentis, sowing.
avis, bird.	orbis, circle.	*sitis, thirst.
axis, axle.	ovis, sheep.	torris, brand.
*būris, plough-beam.	pelvis, basin.	*turris, tower.
clāvis, key.	puppis, stern.	trudis, pole.
collis, hill.	restis, rope.	vectis, lever.
	and many others.	

Words marked with a star have Acc. -im, Abl. -I. Of the others, many at times show i-forms. Town and river names in -is regularly have-im, -I.

- 2. Not all nouns in -is are I-Stems. Some are genuine consonantstems, and have the regular consonant terminations throughout, notably, canis, dog; juvenis, youth.1
- 3. Some genuine I-Stems have become disguised in the Nominative Singular; as, pars, part, for par(ti)s; anas, duck, for ana(ti)s; so also mors, death; dos, dowry; nox, night; sors, lot; mens, mind; ars, art; gens, tribe; and some others.

B. Neuter Y-Stems.

39. These end in the Nominative Singular in -e, -al, and -ar. They always have -ī in the Ablative Singular, -ia in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, and -ium in the Genitive Plural, thus holding more steadfastly to the i-character than do Masculine and Feminine i-Stems.

SedIle, seat; Animal, animal; Calcar, spur; stem, sedIli-. stem, animāli-. stem, calcāri-.

Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	sedīl e sedīl is sedīl ī sedīle sedīle sedīl ī	SINGULAR. animal animālīs animālī animal animal animal	calcar calcār is calcār ī calcar calcar calcar ī	Termination. Wanting -is -I Wanting Wanting -I
		PLURAL.	,	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	sedīlium sedīlibus sedīlia sedīlia sedīlia	animālia animālium animālibus animālia animālia animālibus	calcāria calcārium calcāribus calcāria calcāria calcāribus	-ia -ium -ibus -ia -ia -ibus

- I. In most words of this class the final -i of the stem is lost in the Nominative Singular; in others it appears as -e.
- 2. Proper names in -e form the Ablative Singular in -e; as, Soracte, Soracte; so also sometimes mare, sea.

¹ Mēnsis, month, originally a consonant-stem (mēns-), has in the Genitive Plural both mēnsium and mēnsum. The Accusative Plural is mēnsēs.

III. Consonant-Stems that have partially adapted themselves to the Inflection of J-Stems.

40. Many Consonant-Stems have so far adapted themselves to the inflection of 1-stems as to take -ium in the Genitive Plural, and -1s in the Accusative Plural. Their true character as Consonant-Stems, however, is shown by the fact that they never take -im in the Accusative Singular, or -1 in the Ablative Singular. The following words are examples of this class:—

Caedes, f., slaughter; stem, caed	Arx, f., citadel; stem, arc	Linter, f., skiff; stem, lintr
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. caedes	arx	linter
Gen. caedis	arc is	· lintr is
Dat . caed \mathbf{I}	arc ī	lintr ī
Acc. caedem	arcem.	lintr em
Voc. caed ēs	arx	linter
Abl. caede	arce	lintre
	PLURAL.	
Nom. caedes	arc ēs	lintr ës
Gen. caedium	arciu m	lintr ium
Dat. caedibus	arcibus	lintribus
Acc. caedes, -Is	arc ēs, -īs	lintr ēs, -īs
Voc. caedēs	arcēs	lintrē s
Abl. caedibus	arcibus	lintribus

- I. The following classes of nouns belong here: -
 - a) Nouns in -ēs, with Genitive in -is; as, nūbēs, aedēs, clādēs, etc.
 - b) Many monosyllables in -s or -x preceded by one or more consonants; as, urbs, mons, stirps, lanx.
 - c) Most nouns in -ns and -rs; as, cliëns, cohors.
 - d) Uter, venter; für, līs, mās, mūs, nix; and the Plurals faucēs, penātēs, Optimātēs, Samnītēs, Quirītēs.
 - Sometimes nouns in -tās with Genitive -tātis; as, cīvitās, aetās.

IV. Stems in $-\overline{i}$, $-\overline{u}$, and Diphthongs.

41.		Vis, f., force; stem, vi	Sūs, c., swine; stem, sū	Bōs , c., ox, cow; stem, bou	Jüpiter, m., Jupiter; stem, Jou
			SINGULAR	ι.	
	Nom.	vī s	sū s	bõs	Jūpiter
	Gen.	vis	su is	bov is	Jov is
	Dat.	vī	su ī	bov ī	Jov ī
	Acc.	vi m	suem	bov em	Jovem
	Voc.	vī s	sū s	bō s	Jūpiter
	Abl.	vī	su e	bov e	Jov e
			PLURAL	•	
	Nom.	vīr ēs	su ēs	bov ēs	
	Gen.	vī rium	suum	bov um bou m	
	Dat.	vīr ibus	su ibus su bus) bõ bus) b ūbus	
	Acc.	vī rēs	suēs	bov ēs	
	Voc.	vīr ēs	su ēs	bov ēs	
	Abl.	vīr ibus) su ibus) su bus	∫ bõ bus (bū bus	

- 1. Notice that the oblique cases of sus have u in the root syllable.
- 2. Grüs is declined like süs, except that the Dative and Ablative Plural are always gruibus.
- 3. Jüpiter is for Jou-pater, and therefore contains the same stem as in Jov-is, Jov-I, etc.
- 4. Nāvis was originally a diphthong stem ending in au-, but it has passed over to the I-stems (§ 37).

V. Irregular Nouns.

42. Senex, m., old man.		Carō, f., flesh.	os, n., <i>bone</i> .
		SINGULAR.	•
Nom. ser	nex	carō	os
Gen. se	n is	carnis	oss is
Dat. ser	n ī	carn ī	ossī
Acc. ser	n em ,	carnem	os
Voc. se	nex	carō	os
Abl. • se	ne	carne	oss e

PLURAL.

Nom.	sen ës	carn ēs	ossa
Gen.	sen um	carniu m	oss ium
Dat.	seni bus	carni bus	oss ibus
Acc.	sen ës	carn ës	ossa
Voc.	.sen ēs	carn ēs	ossa
Abl.	seni bus	carn ibus	oss ibus

- 1. Iter, itineris, n., way, is inflected regularly throughout from the stem itiner.
- 2. Supellex, supellectilis, f., furniture, is confined to the Singular. The oblique cases are formed from the stem supellectil. The Ablative has both -I and -e.
- 3. Jecur, n., liver, forms its oblique cases from two stems,—jecor- and jecinor-. Thus, Gen. jecoris or jecinoris.
- 4. Femur, n., thigh, usually forms its oblique cases from the stem femor-, but sometimes from the stem femin-. Thus, Gen. femoris or feminis.

General Principles of Gender in the Third Declension.

- 43. I. Nouns in -ō, -or, -ōs, -er, -ĕs are Masculine.
- 2. Nouns in -ās, -ēs, -is, -ys, -x, -s (preceded by a consonant); -dō, -gō (Genitive -inis); -iō (abstract and collective), -ūs (Genitive -ūtis or -ūdis) are Feminine.
- 3. Nouns ending in -a, -e, -i, -y, -c, -l, -n, -t, -ar, -ur, -us are Neuter.

Chief Exceptions to Gender in the Third Declension.

44. Exceptions to the Rule for Masculines.

- I. Nouns in -ō.
 - a. Feminine: caro, flesh.
- 2. Nouns in -or.
 - a. Feminine: arbor, tree.
 - b. Neuter: aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
- 3. Nouns in -ōs.
 - a. Feminine: dos, dowry.
 - b. Neuter: ōs (ōris), mouth
- 4. Nouns in -er.
 - a. Feminine: linter, skiff.

- b. Neuter: cadāver, corpse; iter, way; tūber, tumor; ūber, udder. Also botanical names in -er; as, acer, maple.
- 5. Nouns in -ĕs.
 - a. Feminine: seges, crop.
- 45. Exceptions to the Rule for Feminines.
- I. Nouns in -as.
 - a. Masculine, as, an as (coin); vas, bondsman.
 - b. Neuter: vas, vessel.
- 2. Nouns in -ēs.
 - a. Masculine: aries, ram; paries, wall; pes, foot.
- 3. Nouns in -is.
 - a. Masculine: all nouns in -nis and -guis; as, amnis, river;
 Ignis, fire; pānis, bread; sanguis, blood; unguis, nail.
 Also —

axis, axle.

collis, hill.

fascis, bundle.

lapis, stone.

měnsis, month.

piscis, fish.

postis, fost.

pulvis, dust.

orbis, circle.

sentis, brier.

- 4. Nouns in -x.
 - a. Masculine: apex, peak; codex, tree-trunk; grex, flock; imbrex, tile; pollex, thumb; vertex, summit; calix, cup.
- 5. Nouns in -s preceded by a consonant.
 - Masculine: dēns, tooth; fōns, fountain; mōns, mountain;
 pōns, bridge.
- 6. Nouns in -dō.
 - a. Masculine: cardo, hinge; ordo, order.
- 46. Exceptions to the Rule for Neuters.
- I. Nouns in -1.
 - a. Masculine: sol, sun; sal, salt.
- 2. Nouns in -n.
 - a. Masculine: pecten, comb.
- 3. Nouns in -ur.
 - a. Masculine: vultur, vulture.
- 4. Nouns in -ŭs.
 - a. Masculine: lepus, hare.

Greek Nouns of the Third Declension.

- 47. The following are the chief peculiarities of these:—
- The ending -ā in the Accusative Singular; as, aetherā, aether;
 Salamīnā, Salamis.
- 2. The ending -es in the Nominative Plural; as, Phryges, Phrygians.
- 3. The ending -as in the Accusative Plural; as, Phrygas, Phrygians.
- 4. Proper names in -as (Genitive -antis) have -a in the Vocative Singular; as, Atlas (Atlantis), Vocative Atla, Atlas.
- 5. Neuters in -ma (Genitive -matis) have -Is instead of -ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural; as, poēmatis, poems.
- 6. Orpheus, and other proper names ending in -eus, form the Vocative Singular in -eu (Orpheu, etc.). But in prose the other cases usually follow the second declension; as, Orpheī, Orpheō, etc.
- 7. Proper names in -ēs, like Periolēs, form the Genitive Singular sometimes in -is, sometimes in -I; as, Periolis or Periolī.
- 8. Feminine proper names in -5 have -ūs in the Genitive, but -5 in the other oblique cases; as, —

Nom.	Dīdō	Acc.	Dīdō
Gen.	Dīdūs	Voc.	Dīdō
Dat.	Dīdō	Abl.	Dīdō

9. The regular Latin endings often occur in Greek nouns.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

ŭ-Stems.

48. Nouns of the Fourth Declension end in -us Masculine, and -u Neuter. They are declined as follows:—

Früctus, <i>fruit</i> .			Cornū,	Cornū, horn.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Nom.	frūct us	frūct ūs	corn ü	cornua	
Gen.	frūct ūs	frūct uum	corn üs	${\tt corn} {\tt uum}$	
Dat.	frūct uī	frūct ibus	corn ü	cornibus	
Acc.	früct um	frūct ūs	c orn ū	cornua	
Voc.	frūct us	frūct ūs	corn ū	cornua	
Abl.	frūct ū	frūct ibus	corn ū	cornibus	

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fourth Declension.

- 49. 1. Nouns in -us, particularly in early Latin, often form the Genitive Singular in -I, following the analogy of nouns in -us of the Second Declension; as, senātī, ōrnātī. This is usually the case in Plautus and Terence.
- 2. Nouns in -us sometimes have -ū in the Dative Singular, instead of -uī; as, frūctū (for frūctuī).
- 3. The ending -ubus, instead of -ibus, occurs in the Dative and Ablative Plural of artus (Plural), limbs; tribus, tribe; and in dissyllables in -ous; as, artubus, tribubus, arcubus, lacubus. But with the exception of tribus, all these words admit the forms in -ibus as well as those in -ubus.
- 4. Domus, house, is declined according to the Fourth Declension, but has also the following forms of the Second:—

domī (locative), at home; domum, homewards, to one's home; domōs, from home; domōs, homewards, to their (etc.) homes.

5. The only Neuters of this declension in common use are: cornū, genū, and verū.

Exceptions to Gender in the Fourth Declension.

50. The following nouns in -us are Feminine: acus, needle; domus, house; manus, hand; porticus, colonnade; tribus, tribe; Idus (Plural), Ides.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

ē-Stems.

51. Nouns of the Fifth Declension end in -8s, and are declined as follows:—

Diës, m., day.		Rēs, f., thing.		
SI	NGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	di ēs	di ēs	r ēs	r ēs
Gen.	di ëī	di ērum	r ĕī	r ērum
Dat.	di ëī	di ēbus	r ĕī	rēbus
Acc.	diem	di ēs	rem	rēs
Voc.	di ēs	di ēs	rēs	rēs
Abl.	diē	diēbus	r ë	rēbus

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fifth Declension.

- 52. 1. The ending of the Genitive and Dative Singular is -51, instead of -51, when a consonant precedes; as, spoi, roi, fidoi.
- 2. A Genitive ending -I (for -šI) is found in plēbī (from plēbēs = plēbs) in the expressions tribūnus plēbī, tribune of the people, and plēbī scītum, decree of the people; sometimes also in other words.
 - 3. A Genitive and Dative form in -ē sometimes occurs; as, aciē.
- 4. With the exception of dies and res, most nouns of the Fifth Declension are not declined in the Plural. But acies, series, species, spess, and a few others, are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

Gender in the Fifth Declension.

53. Nouns of the Fifth Declension are regularly Feminine, except dies, day, and meridies, mid-day. But dies is sometimes Feminine in the Singular, particularly when it means an appointed day.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

54. Here belong -

- 1. Nouns used in the Singular only.
- 2. Nouns used in the Plural only.
- 3. Nouns used only in certain cases.
- 4. Indeclinable Nouns.

Nouns used in the Singular only.

- 55. Many nouns, from the nature of their signification, are regularly used in the Singular only. Thus:—
 - 1. Proper names; as, Cicero, Cicero; Italia, Italy.
 - 2. Nouns denoting material; as, aes, copper; lac, milk.
- 3. Abstract nouns; as, ignorantia, ignorance; bonltas, goodness.
- 4. But the above classes of words are sometimes used in the Plural. Thus:
 - a) Proper names, to denote different members of a family, or specimens of a type; as, Cicerones, the Ciceros; Catones, men like Cato.

- b) Names of materials,—to denote objects made of the material, or different kinds of the substance; as, aera, bronzes (i.e. bronze figures); ligna, woods.
- c) Abstract nouns, to denote instances of the quality; as, ignorantiae, cases of ignorance.

Nouns used in the Plural only.

56. Here belong -

- 1. Many geographical names; as, Thebae, Thebes; Leuctra, Leuctra; Pompējī, Pompeii.
- 2. Many names of festivals; as, Megalesia, the Megalesian festival.
- 3. Many special words, of which the following are the most important:—

angustiae, narrow pass.
arma, weapons.
dēliciae, delight.
dīvitiae, riches.
Īdūs, Ides.
indūtiae, truce.
Insidiae, ambush.
mājōrēs, ancestors.

mānēs, spirits of the dead.
minae, threats.
moenia, city walls.
nūptiae, marriage.
posterī, descendants.
reliquiae, remainder.
tenebrae, darkness.
verbera, blows.

Also in classical prose regularly -

cervicës, neck. fidës, lyre.

nārēs, nose. vīscera, viscera.

Nouns used only in Certain Cases.

- 57. 1. Used in only One Case. Many nouns of the Fourth Declension are found only in the Ablative Singular; as, jussü, by the order; injussü, without the order; nātū, by birth.
 - 2. Used in Two Cases.
 - a. Fors (chance), Nom. Sing.; forte, Abl. Sing.
 - b. Spontis (free-will), Gen. Sing.; sponte, Abl. Sing.
- 3. Used in Three Cases. Nēmō, no one (Nom.), has also the Dat. nēminī and the Acc. nēminem. The Gen. and Abl. are supplied by the corresponding cases of nüllus; viz. nüllīus and nüllō.

- 4. Impetus has the Nom., Acc., and Abl. Sing., and the Nom. and Acc. Plu.; viz. impetus, impetum, impetūs, impetūs.
 - 5. a. Precī, precem, prece, lacks the Nom. and Gen. Sing.
 - b. Vicis, vicem, vice, lacks the Nom. and Dat. Sing.
 - 6. Opis, dapis, and frügis, all lack the Nom. Sing.
- 7. Many monosyllables of the Third Declension lack the Gen. Plu.; as, cor, lūx, sõl, aes, ōs (ōris), rūs, sāl, tūs.

Indeclinable Nouns.

58. Here belong —

fās, n., right. Instar, n., likeness. māne, n., morning. nefās, n., impiety. nihil, n., nothing. secus, n., sex.

1. With the exception of mane (which may serve also as Ablative, in the morning), the nouns in this list are simply Neuters confined in use to the Nominative and Accusative Singular.

Heteroclites.

- 59. These are nouns whose forms are partly of one declension, and partly of another. Thus:—
- 1. Several nouns have the entire Singular of one declension, while the Plural is of another; as,—

vās, vāsis (vessel); Plu., vāsa, vāsōrum, vāsīs, etc. jūgerum, jūgerī (acre); Plu., jūgera, jūgerum, jūgeribus, etc.

- 2. Several nouns, while belonging in the main to one declension, have certain special forms belonging to another. Thus:
 - a) Many nouns of the First Declension ending in -ia take also a Nom. and Acc. of the Fifth; as, māteriēs, māteriem, material, as well as māteria, māteriam.
 - b) Famēs, hunger, regularly of the Third Declension, has the Abl. famē of the Fifth.
 - c) Requiēs, requiētis, rest, regularly of the Third Declension, takes an Acc. of the Fifth, requiem, in addition to requiētem.
 - d) Besides plēbs, plēbis, common people, of the Third Declension, we find plēbēs, plēbēī (also plēbī, see § 52. 2), of the Fifth.

Heterogeneous Nouns.

- 60. Heterogeneous nouns vary in Gender. Thus:
- 1. Several nouns of the Second Declension have two forms, one Masc. in -us, and one Neuter in -um; as, clipeus, clipeum, shield; carrus, carrum, cart.
- 2. Other nouns have one gender in the Singular, another in the Plural; as,—

SINGULAR.

balneum, n., bath; epulum, n., feast; frēnum, n., bridle; jocus, m., jest; locus, m., place;

balneae, f., bath-house.

epulae, f., feast.

frēnī, m. (rarely frēna, n.), bridle. joca, n. (also jocī, m.), jests. loca, n., places; locī, m., passages

PLURAL.

or topics in an author.

rāstrum, n., rake; rāstrī, m.; rāstra, n., rakes.

a. Heterogeneous nouns may at the same time be heteroclites, as in case of the first two examples above.

Plurals with Change of Meaning.

61. The following nouns have one meaning in the Singular, and another in the Plural:—

SINGULAR.

aedes, temple;

auxilium, *help* ;

carcer, prison;

castrum, fort;

copia, abundance;

finis, end;

fortuna, fortune;

grātia, favor;

impedImentum, hindrance;
littera, letter (of the alphabet);

mos, habit, custom;

opera, help, service;

(ops) opis, help;

pars, part;

sāl, salt;

D

PLURAL.

aedēs, house.

auxilia, auxiliary troops.

carceres, stalls for racing-chariots.

castra, camp.

copiae, troops, resources.

fīnēs, borders, territory.

fortunae, possessions, wealth.

grātiae, thanks.

impedīmenta, baggage.

litterae, epistle, literature.

mõrēs, character.

operae, laborers.

opēs, resources.

partes, party, rôle.

sălēs, wit.

Abl.

bonis

B. ADJECTIVES.

- 62. Adjectives denote quality. They are declined like nouns, and fall into two classes,—
 - 1. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.
 - 2. Adjectives of the Third Declension.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.

63. In these the Masculine is declined like hortus, puer, or ager, the Feminine like porta, and the Neuter like bellum. Thus, Masculine like hortus:—

Bonus, good.

	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Nom.	bon us	bon a	bonum
Gen.	bon ī	bonae	bon ī
Dat.	bonō	bo nae	bon ō
Acc.	bonum	bonam	bon um
Voc.	bone	bona	bon um
Abl.	bon ō	bonā	bon ō
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	bon	bonae	bona
Gen.	bon õrum	bonārum	bon ōrum
Dat.	bon īs	bon īs	bon īs
Acc.	bon ōs	bon ās	bona
Voc.	bon ī	bon ae	bon a

a. The Genitive Singular Masculine and Neuter of Adjectives in -ius ends in -iI (not in -I as in case of Nouns; see § 25. I; 2). So also the Vocative Singular of such Adjectives ends in -ie, not in -I. Thus eximius forms Genitive eximiI; Vocative eximie.

bonīs

bonis

64. Masculine like puer: -

Tener, tender.

SINGULAR.

	MASCULINE.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Nom.	tener	tenera	tenerum
Gen.	tener ī	tenera e	tener ī
Dat.	tener ö	tenera e	tener ō
Acc.	tener um	tener am	tenerum
Voc.	tener	tenera	tenerum
Abl.	tener ō	ten erā	tener ō
			tener o

PLURAL.

tenerī	tener ae	tener a
tener örum	tener ārum	tener ōrum
tener īs	tener īs	tener īs
tener ös	tener ās	tener a
tener ī	tener ae	tener a
tener īs	tener īs	tener īs
	tener ōrum tener īs tener ōs tener ī	tener ōrum tener ārum tener īs tener īs tener ōs tener ās tener ī tener as

65. Masculine like ager: ---

Bacer, sacred.

SINGULAR.

	MASCULINE.	Feminine.	NEUTER.
Nom.	sacer	sacra	sacr um
Gen.	sacr ī	sacrae	sacr ī
Dat.	sacr ō	sacra e	sacrō
Acc.	sacrum	sacr am	sacrum
Voc.	sacer	sacra	sacrum
Abl.	sacrō	sacrā	sacrō

PLURAL.

Nom.	sacrī	sacrae	sacra
Gen.	sacr ōrum	sacr ārum	sacr ōrum
Dat.	sacr īs	sacr īs	sacr īs
Acc.	sacr ōs	sacr ās	sacr a
Voc.	sacrī	sacr ae	sacra
Abl.	sacr īs	sacr īs	sacr īs

1. Most adjectives in -er are declined like sacer. The following are declined like tener: asper, rough; lacer, torn; liber, free;

miser, wretched; prosper, prosperous; compounds in -fer and -ger; sometimes dexter, right.

2. Satur, full, is declined: satur, satura, saturum.

Nine Irregular Adjectives.

66. Here belong -

alius, another; alter, the other; tillus, any; ntillus, none; uter, which? (of two); neuter, neither; tōtus, whole; tinus, one, alone.

They are declined as follows: -

SINGULAR.

	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Nom.	alius	alia	aliud	alter	alter a	alteru m
Gen.	alter ĭus	alter ĭus	alter ĭus ¹	alter ĭus	alter ĭus	alter ĭus
Dat.	ali ī	ali ī	ali ī	alter ī	alter ī ²	alter ī
Acc.	aliu m	ali am	aliud	alter um	alter am	alterum.
Voc.						
Abl.	ali ō	aliā	ali ō	alter ō	alter ā	alter ō
Nom.	uter	u tra	utr um	tōt us	tōta	tõtu m
Gen.	utr īus	utr īus	utr īus	tōt īus	tōt īus	tōt īus
Dat.	utr ī	utr ī	utr ī	tōt ī	tōt ī	tōt ī
Acc.	utr um	utram	utr um	tōt um	tōt am	tõt um
Voc.		—				
Abl.	utrō	utr ā	utrō	tõt õ	tōtā	tōt ō

- 1. All these words lack the Vocative. The Plural is regular.
- Neuter is declined like uter.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

- 67. These fall into three classes, —
- 1. Adjectives of three terminations in the Nominative Singular, one for each gender.
 - 2. Adjectives of two terminations.
 - 3. Adjectives of one termination.

¹ This is almost always used instead of alius in the Genitive.

² A Dative Singular Feminine alterae also occurs.

a. With the exception of Comparatives, and a few other words mentioned below in § 70. 1, all Adjectives of the Third Declension follow the inflection of I-stems; i.e. they have the Ablative Singular in -I, the Genitive Plural in -ium, the Accusative Plural in -Is (as well as -8s) in the Masculine and Feminine, and the Nominative and Accusative Plural in -ia in Neuters.

Adjectives of Three Terminations.

68. These are declined as follows:—

Ācer, *sharp*.

SINGULAR. MASCULINE. FRMININE. NEUTRE. Nom. ācer ācris ācre Gen. ā cris ācr**is** ācris Dat. ācrī ācrī ācrī Acc. ācrem ācrem ācre Voc. ācer ācris ācre Abl. ācrī ācrī ācrī PLURAL.

Nom.	ācr ēs	ācr ēs	ācri a
Gen.	ācrium	ācr ium	ācrium
Dat.	ācr ibus	ācr ibus	ācr ibus
Acc.	ācr ēs, -īs	ācr ēs, -īs	ācr ia
Voc.	ācr ēs	ācr ēs	ācr ia
Abl.	ācribu s	ãcr ibus	ācrib us

- I. Like acer are declined alacer, lively; campester, level; celeber, famous; equester, equestrian; palüster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; puter, rotten; salüber, wholesome; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volucer, winged; also names of months in -ber, as September.
- 2. Celer, celeris, celere, swift, retains the e before r, but lacks the Genitive Plural.
- 3. In the Nominative Singular of Adjectives of this class the Feminine form is sometimes used for the Masculine. This is regularly true of salūbris, silvestris, and terrestris. In case of the other words in the list, the use of the Feminine for the Masculine is confined chiefly to early and late Latin, and to poetry.

Adjectives of Two Terminations.

69. These are declined as follows:—

Fortis, strong.		Fortior, stronger			
		s	INGULAR.		•
	M. AND F.	NEUT.		M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	fortis	fort e		fortior	fortius
Gen.	fort is	fortis		fortiōr is	fortiōr is
Dat.	fort ï	fort ī		fortiōr ī	fortiōr ī
Acc.	fortem	fort e		fortiōr em	fortius
Voc.	fortis	forte		fortior	fortius
Abl.	fortī	fortI		fortiōr e, -I	fortiōr e , -ī
			PLURAL.		
Nom.	fort ës	fortia		fortiör ës	fortiōr a
Gen.	fort ium	fort ium		fortiōr um	fortiōr um
Dat.	fortibus	forti bus		fortiōr ibus	fortiōr ibus
Acc.	fortēs, -īs	fort ia		fortiōr ēs, -īs	fortiōr a
Voc.	fortēs	fort ia		fortiōr ēs	fortiōr a
Abl.	fortibus	fortibus		fortiōri bus	fortiör ibus

1. Fortior is the Comparative of fortis. All Comparatives are regularly declined in the same way. The Acc. Plu. in -Is is rare.

Adjectives of One Termination.

70 .	Fēlīx, h	арфу.		Prūdēns,	prudent.
			SINGULAR.		
	M. AND F.	NEUT.		M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	fēlīx	fēlīx		prūdēns	prūdēns
Gen.	fēlīc is	fēlīc is		prūdent is	prūdent is
Dat.	fēlīc ī	fēlīc ī		prūdent ī	prūdent ī
Acc.	fēlīc em	fēlīx		prūdent em	prūdēns
Voc.	fēlīx	fēlīx		prūdēns	prūdēns
Abl.	fēlīc ī	fēlīc ī		prūdent ī	prūdent ī
		_	PLURAL.		
Nom.	fēlīc ēs	felīcia		prūdent ēs	prūdent ia
Gen.	fēlīciu m	fēlīcium	ı	pradentium	prūden tium
Dat.	fēlīc ibus	fēlīc ibu	5	prūdent ibus	prūdenti bus
Acc.	fēlīc ēs, -Is	fēlīcia		prūdent ēs, -īs	prūdentia
Voc.	fēlīc ēs	fēlīcia		prūdent ēs	prūdent ia
Abl.	fēlīc ibus	fēlīcibu	8	prūdent ibus	prūdentibus

$oldsymbol{ abla}$ etus, old .		Plüs, n	Plūs, more.	
		SINGULAR		
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	vetus	vetus		plūs
Gen.	veter is	veter is	 ·	plūr is
Dat.	veter ī	veter ī		
Acc.	veter em	vetus		plūs
Voc.	vetus	vetus		
Abl.	veter e	veter e		plūr e
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	veter ēs	veter a	p l ūr ēs	plūr a
Gen.	veter um	v e ter um	plūr ium	plūr ium
Dat.	veteribus	veter ibus	plūribus	plūr ibus
Acc.	veter ēs	vetera	plūr ēs, -īs	plūr a
Voc.	veter ës	veter a		
Abl.	veteribus	veter ibus	plūr ibus	plūr ibus

- 1. It will be observed that **vetus** is declined as a pure Consonant-Stem; *i.e.* Ablative Singular in -e, Genitive Plural in -um, Nominative Plural Neuter in -a, and Accusative Plural Masculine and Feminine in -ēs only. In the same way are declined compos, controlling; dīves, rich; particeps, sharing; pauper, poor; prīnceps, chief; sōspes, safe; superstes, surviving. Yet dīves always has Neut. Plu. dītia.
- 2. Inops, needy, and memor, mindful, have Ablative Singular inopī, memorī, but Genitive Plural inopum, memorum.
- 3. Participles in -ans and -ens follow the declension of i-stems. But they do not have -i in the Ablative, except when employed as adjectives; when used as participles or as substantives, they have -e; as, —

ā sapientī virō, by a wise man; but ā sapiente, by a philosopher; Tarquiniō rēgnante, under the reign of Tarquin.

- 4. Plūs, in the Singular, is always a noun.
- 5. In the Ablative Singular, adjectives, when used as substantives,
 - a) usually retain the adjective declension; as, —

aequālis, contemporary, Abl. quālī. consulāris, ex-consul, Abl. consulārī.

So names of Months; as, Aprili, April; Decembri, December.

b) But adjectives used as proper names have -e in the Ablative Singular; as, Celere, Celer; Juvenāle, Juvenal.

- c) Patrials in -ās, -ātis and -īs, -ītis, when designating places, regularly have -ī; as, in Arpīnātī, on the estate at Arpīnum; yet -e, when used of persons; as, ab Arpīnāte, by an Arpīnatian.
- 6. A very few indeclinable adjectives occur, the chief of which are frugil, frugal, nequam, worthless.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

- 71. 1. There are three degrees of Comparison, the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.
- 2. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding -ior (Neut. -ius), and the Superlative by adding -issimus (-a, -um), to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel; as,—

altus, high, altior, higher, altissimus, $\begin{cases} highest, \\ very high. \end{cases}$ fortis, brave, fortior, fortissimus. fēlīcissimus. dīvitissimus. dīvitissimus.

So also Participles, when used as Adjectives; as, -

doctus, learned, doctior, doctissimus. egēns, needy, egentior, egentissimus.

3. Adjectives in -er form the Superlative by appending -rimus to the Nominative of the Positive. The Comparative is regular. Thus:—

asper, rough, asperior, asperrimus.

pulcher, beautiful, pulchrior, pulcherrimus.

ācer, sharp, ācrior, ācerrimus.

celer, swift, celerior, celerrimus.

pauper, poor, pauperior, pauperrimus.

- a. Notice mātūrus, mātūrior, mātūrissimus or mātūrrimus.
- 4. Five Adjectives in -ilis form the Superlative by adding -limus to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel. The Comparative is regular. Thus

facilis, easy,
difficilis, difficult,
similis, like,
dissimilis, unlike,
humilis, low,
facilior,
difficilimus.
difficilimus.
difficilimus.
difficilimus.
difficilimus.
difficilimus.
difficilimus.
humilior,
humilimus.

5. Adjectives in -dicus, -ficus, and -volus, form the Comparative and Superlative as though from forms in -dicens, -ficens, -volens. Thus: —

maledicus, slanderous, maledicentior, maledicentissimus.
magnificus, magnificent, magnificentior, magnificentissimus.
benevolus, kindly, benevolentior, benevolentissimus.

 a. Positives in -dīcēns and -volēns occur in early Latin; as, maledīcēns, benevolēns.

Irregular Comparison.

72. Several Adjectives vary the Stem in Comparison: viz. —

bonus, good, melior, optimus. malus, bad, pējor, pessimus. parvus, small, minor, minimus. māgnus, large, māximus. mājor, multus, much, plūs, plūrimus. frūgālissimus. frūgī, thrifty, frūgālior, nēquam, worthless, nēguior, nēguissimus.

 Observe that the i of -ior becomes j — between vowels — in pējor and mājor.

Defective Comparison.

73. 1. Positive lacking entirely, —

(Cf. prae, in front of.) prior, former, primus, first. (Cf. citra, this side of.) citerior, on this side, citimus, near. ulterior, farther, ultimus, farthest. (Cf. ultrā, beyond.) (Cf. intrā, within.) interior, inner, intimus, inmost. (Cf. prope, near.) propior, nearer, proximus, nearest. dēterior, inferior, (Cf. de, down.) dēterrimus, worst. (Cf. archaic potis, possible.) potior, preferable, potissimus, chiefest.

2. Positive occurring only in special cases, -

	1	· -
inferi, gods of the lower world, Mare Inferum, Mediterranean	inferior, lower,	infimus, lowest.
Sea,] ' '	[īmus,]
superī, gods above,)	suprē mus , last.
Mare Superum, Adriatic Sea,	superior, higher,	suprē mus , <i>last</i> . sum mus , <i>highest</i> .
3. Comparative lacking.		
vetus, old,	1	veterrimus.
fīdus, faithful,		fīd issimus.
novus, new,	2	novissimus,8 last.
sacer, sacred,		sacerrimus.
falsus, false,		fals issim us.

Also in some other words less frequently used.

4. Superlative lacking.

alacer, <i>lively</i> ,	alacr io r,	
ingēns, great,	ingent ior ,	
salūtāris, wholesome,	salūtār ior ,	
juvenis, young,	jūn ior ,	4
senex, old,	senior.	5

a. The Superlative is lacking also in many adjectives in -alis, -Ilis, -Ilis, -bilis, and in a few others.

Comparison by Magis and Maxime.

- 74. Many adjectives do not admit terminational comparison, but form the Comparative and Superlative degrees by prefixing magis (more) and māximē (most). Here belong —
- Many adjectives ending in -ālis, -āris, -idus, -Ilis, -icus, -imus, -īnus, -ōrus.
- 2. Adjectives in -us preceded by a vowel; as, idôneus, adapted; arduus, steep; necessarius, necessary.
 - a. Adjectives in -quus, of course, do not come under this rule. The first u in such cases is not a vowel, but a consonant.

¹ Supplied by **vetustior**, from **vetustus**.

² Supplied by recentior.

⁸ For newest, recentissimus is used.

⁴ Supplied by minimus nātū.

⁵ Supplied by māximus nātū.

Adjectives not admitting Comparison.

75. Here belong —

- 1. Many adjectives which, from the nature of their signification, do not admit of comparison; as, hodiernus, of to-day; annuus, annual; mortalis, mortal.
 - 2. Some special words; as, mīrus, gnārus, merus; and a few others.

FORMATION AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

- 76. Adverbs are for the most part derived from adjectives, and depend upon them for their comparison.
- I. Adverbs derived from adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive by changing -I of the Genitive Singular to -E; those derived from adjectives of the Third Declension, by changing -Is of the Genitive Singular to -Iter; as,—

cārus, cārē, dearly;
pulcher, pulchrē, beautifully;
ācer, ācriter, fiercely;
levis, leviter, lightly.

a. But Adjectives in -ns, and a few others, add -ter (instead of -iter), to form the Adverb; as, —

sapiēns, sapienter, wisely; audāx, audācter, boldly; sollers, skillfully.

2. The Comparative of all Adverbs regularly consists of the Accusative Singular Neuter of the Comparative of the Adjective; while the Superlative of the Adverb is formed by changing the -I of the Genitive Singular of the Superlative of the Adjective to -E. Thus—

(cārus)	cār ē , <i>dearly</i> ,	cār ius ,	cār issimē .
(pulcher)	pulchrē, beautifully,	pulchr ius ,	pulcher rimē .
(ācer)	acriter, fiercely,	ācrius,	ācerri mē.
(levis)	leviter, lightly,	lev ius ,	lev issimë .
(sapiēns)	sapienter, wisely,	sapient ius ,	sapient issimē .
(audāx)	audācter, boldly,	audāc ius,	audāc issimē.

Adverbs Peculiar in Comparison and Formation.

```
77. 1.
 beně, well,
                        melius.
                                              optimē.
 malě. ill.
                        pējus.
                                              pessimē.
                                              māximē.
 māgnopere, greatly,
                        magis,
 multum, much,
                                              plūrimum.
                        plūs.
 non multum,
                little,
                                              minimē.
                        minus,
 parum.
 diū. long.
                        diūtius.
                                              diūtissimē.
                                              nēguissimē.
 nēquiter, worthlessly,
                        nēguius,
 saepe, often,
                        saepius,
                                              saepissimē.
                                              mātūrrimē,
 mātūrē, betimes,
                        mātūrius.
                                              mātūrissimē.
 prope, near,
                        propius,
                                              proximē.
 nuper, recently,
                                              nūperrimē.
                        potius, rather.
                                              potissimum, especially.
                        prius, freviously, before,
                                              prīmum, first.
 secus, otherwise,
                        sētius, less.
```

2. A number of adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form an Adverb in -5, instead of -5; as, —

```
crēbrō, frequently; falsō, falsely; continuō, immediately; subitō, suddenly; rārō, rarely; and a few others.
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a. cito, quickly, has -o.

3. A few adjectives employ the Accusative Singular Neuter as the Positive of the Adverb; as,—

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multum, much; minimum, least; paulum, little; facile, easily.
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4. A few adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive in -iter; as, —

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fīrmus, fīrmiter, firmly; hūmānus, hūmāniter, humanly; largus, largiter, copiously; alius, aliter, otherwise.
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a. violentus has violenter.

5. Various other adverbial suffixes occur, the most important of which are -tus and -tim; as, antiquitus, anciently; paulātim, gradually.

NUMERALS.

78. Numerals may be divided into -

- I. Numeral Adjectives, comprising
 - a. Cardinals; as, unus, one; duo, two; etc.
 - b. Ordinals; as, prīmus, first; secundus, second; etc.
 - c. Distributives; as, singuli, one by one; bini, two by two; etc.
- II. Numeral Adverbs; as, semel, once; bis, twice; etc.

79. Table of Numeral Adjectives and Adverbs.

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	Adverbs.
I.	ūnus, ūna, ūnum	prīmus, <i>first</i>	singulī, one by one	semel
2.	duo, duae, duo	secundus, second	bīnī, <i>two by two</i>	bis
3.	trēs, tria	tertius, third	ternī (trīnī)	ter
4.	quattuor	quartus, fourth	quaterni	quater
5.	quinque	quīntus, <i>fifth</i>	quīnī	quīnqui ēs
6.	sex	sextus	sēnī	sexiēs
7.	septem	septimus	septēnī	septiēs
8.	octō	octāvus	octoni	octiēs
9.	novem	nõnus		noviēs
IO.	decem	decimus	dēnī	deciēs
II.	ũndecim	ūndecimus	ūndēnī⁻	ūndeciēs
12.	duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī	duodeciēs
13.	tredecim	tertius decimus	ternî dênî	terdeciēs
14.	quattuordecim	quartus decimus	quaternī dēnī	quaterdecies
15.	quindecim	quintus decimus	quini deni	quinquies decies
16. {	sēdecim }	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī	sexiēs deciēs
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī	septiēs deciēs
18.	duodēvīgintī	duodēvīcēsimus	duodēvīcēnī	octies decies
19.	ũndēvīgintī	ũndēvīcēsimus	ündēvīcēnī	noviēs deciēs
20.	vīgintī	vīcēsimus	vīcēnī	vīciēs
21.	vīgintī ūnus	vīcēsimus prīmus	vīcēni singulī	vīciēs semel
(ūnus et vīgintī	ūnus et vīcēsimus	singulī et vīcēnī	3
22. {	vīgintī duo	vīcēsimus secundus	vīcēnī binī	vīciēs bis
(duo et vīgintī	alter et vīcēsimus	bīnī et vīcēnī	l l
30.	trīgintā	trīcēsimus	trīcēnī	trīciēs
40.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus	quadrāgēnī	quadrāgiēs
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimus	quīnquāgēnī	quīnquāgies
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēsimus	sexāgēnī	sexāgiēs
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēsimus	septuāgēnī	septuāgiēs
8 0.	octogintā	octōgēsimus	octōgēnī	octōgiēs
90.	nōnāgintā	nonāgēsimus	nonagenī	nōnāgiēs ·
100.	centum	centēsimus	centēnī	centies

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	Adverss.
101.	centum ünus centum et ünus	centēsimus prīmus centēsimus et prīmus	centeni singuli centeni et singuli	centies semel
200.	ducenti, -ae, -a	ducentēsim us	ducēnī	ducenties
300.	trecenti	trecentēsimus	trecēnī	trecenties
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēsimus	quadringēnī	quadringenties
500.	quingenti	quingentēsimus	quing ēnī	quingentiës
600.	sescenti	sescentēsimus	sescēnī	sescenties
700.	septingentī	septingentēsimus	septingëni	septingenties
800.	octingenti	octingentēsimus	octingēnī	octingentiës
900.	nöngenti	nõngentēsimus	nöngēnī	nõngenties
1,000.	mīlle	mīllēsimus	singula mīllia	mīlliēs
2,000.	duo mīllia	bis mīllēsimus	bīna mīllia	bis mīlliēs
100,000.	centum mīllia	centies mīllesimus	centēna mīllia	centiēs mīlliēs
1,000,000.	deciēs centēna mīllia	deciēs centiēs mīllē- simus	decies centena millia	decies centies millies

Note. — -ënsimus and -iëns are often written in the numerals instead of -ësimus and -iës.

Declension of the Cardinals.

- 80. 1. The declension of tinus has already been given under § 66.
- 2. Duo is declined as follows: -

Nom.	duo	duae	duo
Gen.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum
Dat.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus
Acc.	duōs, duo	duās	duo
Abl.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus

- a. So ambo, both, except that its final o is long.
- 3. Tres is declined, -

Nom.	trēs	tria
Gen.	trium	trium
Dat.	tribus	tribus
Acc.	trēs (trīs)	tria
Abl.	tribus	tribus

- 4. The hundreds (except centum) are declined like the Plural of bonus.
- 5. MILLE is regularly an adjective in the Singular, and indeclinable. In the Plural it is a substantive (followed by the Genitive of the objects enumerated; § 201. 1), and is declined,—

Nom.	mīllia	Acc.	mīllia
Gen.	mīllium	Voc.	mīllia
Dat.	mīllibus	Abl.	mīllibus

Thus mille homines, a thousand men; but duo millia hominum, two thousand men, literally two thousands of men.

- a. Occasionally the Singular admits the Genitive construction;
 as, mīlle hominum.
- 6. Other Cardinals are indeclinable. Ordinals and Distributives are declined like Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.

Peculiarities in the Use of Numerals.

81. I. The compounds from 21 to 99 may be expressed either with the larger or the smaller numeral first. In the latter case, et is used. Thus:—

trīgintā sex or sex et trīgintā, thirty-six.

2. The numerals under 90, ending in 8 and 9, are often expressed by subtraction; as,—

duodēvīgintī, eighteen (but also octodecim);

undequadraginta, thirty-nine (but also trīginta novem or novem et trīginta).

3. Compounds over 100 regularly have the largest number first; the others follow without et; as,—

centum viginti septem, one hundred and twenty-seven.

annō mīllēsimō octingentēsimō octōgēsimō secundō, in the year 1882.

Yet et may be inserted where the smaller number is either a digit or one of the tens; as,—

centum et septem, one hundred and seven; centum et quadraginta, one hundred and forty.

- 4. The Distributives are used
 - a) To denote so many each, so many apiece; as, bīna talenta ils dedit, he gave them two talents each.
 - b) When those nouns that are ordinarily Plural in form, but Singular in meaning, are employed in a Plural sense; as, bīnae litterae, two epistles.

But in such cases, tini (not singuli) is regularly employed for one, and trini (not terni) for three; as,—

unae litterae, one epistle.

trinae litterae, three epistles.

c) In multiplication; as,—
bis bina sunt quattuor, twice two are four.

C. PRONOUNS.

- 82. A Pronoun is a word that indicates something without naming it.
 - 83. There are the following classes of pronouns:—

I. Personal.

V. Intensive.

II. Reflexive.

VI. Relative.

III. Possessive.IV. Demonstrative.

VII. Interrogative.

VIII. Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

84. These correspond to the English I, you, he, she, it, etc., and are declined as follows:—

First Person.	Second Person.	Third Person.
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. ego, I	tū, <i>thou</i>	is, he; ea, she; id, it
Gen. meī	tuī	(For declension see § 87.)
Dat. mihi ¹	tibi ¹	
Acc. mē	tē	
Voc. —	tū	•
Abl. mē,	tē	
	PLURAL.	
Nom. nos, we	võs, <i>you</i>	
Gen. { nostrum nostrī	{ vestrum vestrī	
nostrī	∫ vestrī	
Dat. nobīs	võbīs	
Acc. nos	võs	
Voc. —	võs	
Abl. nōbīs	võbīs	

- 1. A Dative Singular mī occurs in poetry.
- 2. Emphatic forms in -met are occasionally found; as, egomet, I myself; tibimet, to you yourself; tū has tūte and tūtemet (written also tūtimet).

¹ The final i is sometimes long in poetry.

3. In early Latin, med and ted occur as Accusative and Ablative forms.

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

85. These refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand; like myself, yourself, in 'I see myself,' etc. They are declined as follows:—

	First Person.	Second Person.	Third Person.
	Supplied by oblique cases of ego.	Supplied by oblique cases of $t\bar{u}$.	
Gen.	meī, of myself	tuī, of thyself	suī
Dat.	mihi, to myself	tibi, to thyself	sibi ¹
Acc.	mē, <i>myself</i>	tē, thyself	sē <i>or</i> sēsē
Voc.			
Abl.	mē, with myself, etc.	tē, with thyself, etc.	sē <i>or</i> sē sē

- I. The Reflexive of the Third Person serves for all genders and for both numbers. Thus sul may mean, of himself, herself, itself, or of themselves; and so with the other forms.
- 2. All of the Reflexive Pronouns have at times a reciprocal force; as,—
 inter se pugnant, they fight with each other.
 - 3. In early Latin, sed occurs as Accusative and Ablative.

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

86. These are strictly adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, and are inflected as such. They are—

First Person.

Second Person.

meus, -a, -um, my; noster, nostra, nostrum, our; tuus, -a, -um, thy;

vester, vestra, vestrum, your;

Third Person.

suus, -a, -um, his, her, its, their.

1. Suus is exclusively Reflexive; as, —

pater suos liberos amat, the father loves his children.

· Otherwise, his, her, its are regularly expressed by the Genitive Singular of is, viz. ējus; and their, by the Genitive Plural, eōrum, eārum.

¹ The final i is sometimes long in poetry.

- 2. The Vocative Singular Masculine of meus is mī.
- 3. The enclitic -pte may be joined to the Ablative Singular of the Possessive Pronouns for the purpose of emphasis. This is particularly common in case of suō, suā; as, suōpte, suāpte.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

87. These point out an object as here or there, or as previously mentioned. They are —

hic, this (where I am); iste, that (where you are); ille, that (something distinct from the speaker); is, that (weaker than ille); Idem, the same.

HIC, iste, and ille are accordingly the Demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons respectively.

Hio. this.

		SINGULAI	₹.	PLURAL.			
M	ASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	Masculine.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	
Nom.	hīc¹	haec	hōc	hī	hae	haec	
Gen.	hūjus 2	hūjus	hūj us	hõrum	hārum	hōrum	
Dat.	huic	huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs	
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hōc	hōs ,	hās	haec	
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	hīs	hīs	hīs	

Iste, that, that of yours.

	;	SINGULA	₹.	PLURAL.			
M	[asculine.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	
Nom.	iste	ista	istud 8	istī	istae	ista 8	
Gen:	istīus	istīus	istīus	istōrum	istārum	istōrum	
Dat.	istī	istī	istī	istīs	istīs	istīs	
Acc.	istum	istam	istud	istōs	istās	ista 8	
Abl.	istō	istā	istō	istīs	istīs	istīs	

Ille (archaic olle), that, that one, he, is declined like iste.4

¹ The vowel is sometimes short in poetry. — hic.

² Forms of hic ending in -s sometimes append -ce for emphasis; as, hūjusce, this ... here; hōsce, hisce. When -ne is added, -ce becomes -ci; as, hōscine.

⁸ For istud, istuc sometimes occurs; for ista, istaec.

⁴ For illud, illuc sometimes occurs.

Is, he, this, that.

SINGULAR.				PLURAL.		
1	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	Masculine.	FEMININE.	· NEUTER.
Nom.	is	ea	id	eī, iī, (ī)	eae	ea
Gen.	ējus	ējus	ējus	e õrum	eārum	eōrum
Dat.	eī	eī	eī	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs
Acc.	eum	eam	id	eös	eās	ea
Abl.	еō	eā	еō	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs

Idem, the same.

ruem, the same.							
	SI	NGULAR.			PLURAL.		
M	ASCULINE.	FEMININE.		MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	
Nom.	īdem	eadem	idem	{ eīdem } { iīdem }	eaedem	eadem	
Gen. Dat. Acc. Abl.	e īdem	eandem	eīdem	eōrundem eīsdem eōsdem eīsdem	eārundem eīsdem eāsdem eīsdem	eōrundem eīsdem eadem eīsdem	

The Nom. Plu. Masc. also has idem, and the Dat. Abl. Plu. isdem or iisdem.

V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN.

88. The Intensive Pronoun in Latin is ipse. It corresponds to the English myself, etc., in 'I myself, he himself.'

	SINGULAR.				PLURAL.		
M	IASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	
Nom.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa	
Gen.	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsõrum	
Dat.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs	
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa	
Abl.	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs	

VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

89. The Relative Pronoun is quī, who. It is declined:—

SI	NGULAR.		PLURAL.		
MASCULINE. I Nom. quī Gen. cūjus Dat. cui Acc. quem Abl. quō 1	FEMININE. quae cūjus cui quam quā 1	NEUTER. quod cūjus cui quod quod quō 1	MASCULINE. quī quōrum quibus ² quōs quibus ²	Feminine. quae quārum quibus ² quās quibus ²	NEUTER. quae quōrum quibus ² quae quibus ²

¹ An Ablative qui occurs in quicum.

² Sometimes quis.

VII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

90. The Interrogative Pronouns are quis, who? (substantive) and qui, what? what kind of? (adjective).

I. Quis, who?

	SINGULA	R.	PLURAL.
	MASC. AND FEM.	NEUTER.	Wanting.
Nom.	quis	quid	
Gen.	cūjus	cūjus	
Dat.	cui	cui	
Acc.	quem	quid	
Abl.	quō	quō	

- 2. qui, what? what kind of? is declined precisely like the Relative Pronoun; vis. qui, quae, quod, etc.
 - a. An old Ablative qui occurs, in the sense of how?
 - b. Qui is sometimes used for quis in Indirect Questions.
 - c. Quis, when limiting words denoting persons, is sometimes an adjective. But in such cases quis homō = what man? whereas quī homō = what sort of a man?
 - d. Quis and qui may be strengthened by adding nam. Thus:—Substantive. quisnam, who, pray? quidnam, what, pray? Adjective. quinam, quaenam, quodnam, of what kind, pray?

VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

SUBSTANTIVES.

91. These have the general force of some one, any one.

ADJECTIVES.

0020.					
M. AND F.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	
quis,	quid, anyone, anything.	quī,	quae or qua	, quod, <i>any</i> .	
aliquis,	aliquid, someone, something.	aliqui	aliqua,	aliquod, any.	
quisquam,	quidquam, anyone, anything.	No corres	onding adject	ive.	
quispiam,	quidpiam, anyone, anything.	quispiam	, quaepiam,	quodpiam, any.	
quisque,	quidque, each.	quisque,	quaeque,	quodque, each.	
quīvīs, quaevīs, quīlibet, quaelibet,	quidvis, anyone, anything you wish.	quīvīs, quilibet,	quaevīs, quaelibet,	quodvīs, any you quodlibet, wish.	
quīd am, q uaedam	, quiddam, $\begin{cases} a \ certain \\ person, \\ or thing. \end{cases}$	quīdam,	quaedam,	quoddam, a cer-	

- 1. In the Indefinite Pronouns, only the pronominal part is declined. Thus: Genitive Singular alicūjus, cūjuslibet, etc.
- 2. Note that aliqui has aliqua in the Nominative Singular Feminine, also in the Nominative and Accusative Plural Neuter. Qui has both qua and quae in these same cases.
- 3. Quīdam forms Accusative Singular quendam, quandam; Genitive Plural quōrundam, quārundam; the m being assimilated to n before d.
- 4. Aliquis may be used adjectively, and (occasionally) aliqui substantively.
- 5. In combination with ne, sī, nisi, num, either quis or quī may stand as a Substantive. Thus: sī quis or sī quī.
- 6. Ecquis, anyone, though strictly an Indefinite, generally has interrogative force. It has both substantive and adjective forms,—substantive, ecquis, ecquid; adjective, ecqui, ecquae and ecqua, ecquod.
 - 7. Quisquam is not used in the Plural.
- 8. There are two Indefinite Relatives, quicumque and quisquis, whoever. Quicumque declines only the first part; quisquis declines both, but has only quisquis, quidquid, quoquo in common use.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

- 92. The following adjectives, also, frequently have pronominal force:—

 - 2. The compounds, -

uterque, utraque, utrumque, each of two; utercumque, utracumque, utrumcumque, whoever of two; uterlibet, utralibet, utrumlibet, either one you please; utervīs, utravīs, utrumvīs, either one you please; alteruter, alterutra, alterutrum, the one or the other.

In these, uter alone is declined. The rest of the word remains unchanged, except in case of alteruter, which may decline both parts; as,—

Nom. alteruter altera utra alterum utrum Gen. alterius utrīus etc.

CHAPTER II. — Conjugation.

- 93. The Inflection of Verbs is called Conjugation.
- 94. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person:
 - 1. Two Voices, Active and Passive.
 - 2. Three Moods, Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative.
 - 3. Six Tenses, -

Present, Perfect,
Imperfect, Pluperfect,
Future, Future Perfect.

But the Subjunctive lacks the Future and Future Perfect; while the Imperative employs only the Present and Future.

- 4. Two Numbers, Singular and Plural.
- 5. Three Persons, First, Second, and Third.
- 95. These make up the so-called *Finite Verb*. Besides this, we have the following Noun and Adjective Forms:—
 - 1. Noun Forms, Infinitive, Gerund, and Supine.
 - 2. Adjective Forms, Participles (including the Gerundive).
 - 96. The Personal Endings of the Verb are, —

ACTIVE. PASSIVE. Sing. 1. -5; -m; -I (Perf. Ind.); -r. 2. -s; -stī (Perf. Ind.); -tō or -ris, -re; -re, -tor (Impv.). wanting (Impv.); 3. -t; -to (Impv.); -tur; -tor (Impv.). Plu. I. -mus; -mur. 2. -tis; -stis (Perf. Ind.); -te, -minī. -tote (Impv.); 3. -nt; -erunt (Perf. Ind.); -nto -ntur; -ntor (Impv.). (Impv.);

VERB-STEMS.

97. Conjugation consists in appending certain endings to the Stem. We distinguish three different stems in a fully inflected verb,—

- I. Present Stem, from which are formed
 - 1. Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative,
 - 2. Present and Imperfect Subjunctive,

3. The Imperative,

4. The Present Infinitive.

- II. Perfect Stem, from which are formed -
 - 1. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative,

5. The Present Active Participle, the Gerund, and Gerundive.

2. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive,

3. Perfect Infinitive.

III. Participial Stem, from which are formed —

- 1. Perfect Participle.
- 2. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative,

 Passive.
- 3. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive,
- 4. Perfect Infinitive,

Apparently from the same stem, though really of different origin, are the Supine, the Future Active Participle, the Future Infinitive Active and Passive.

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

98. There are in Latin four regular Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the vowel of the termination of the Present Infinitive Active, as follows: -

Conjugation.	Infinitive Termination.	Distinguishing Vowel.
I. ·	-āre	ā
II.	-ēre	ē
III.	-ĕre	ĕ
IV.	-īre	1

99. Principal Parts. The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and the Perfect Participle¹ constitute the Principal Parts of a Latin verb. — so called because they contain the different stems, from which the full conjugation of the verb may be derived.

¹ Where the Perfect Participle is not in use, the Future Active Participle, if it occurs, is given as one of the Principal Parts.

CONJUGATION OF SUM.

100. The irregular verb sum is so important for the conjugation of all other verbs that its inflection is given at the outset.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.

sum, I am,

es, thou art,

eram, I was,

erat, he was:

ero, I shall be,

eris, thou wilt be,

erit, he will be;

eras, thou wast,

est, he is;

SINGULAR.

Pres. Inf.

PERF. IND. ful

FUT. PARTIC.1 futurus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

PLURAL. sumus, we are, estis, you are, sunt, they are.

IMPERFECT.

erāmus, we were, erātis, you were, erant, they were.

FUTURE.

erimus, we shall be, eritis, you will be, erunt, they will be.

PERFECT.

fui, I have been, I was, fuisti, thou hast been, thou wast, fuit, he has been, he was;

fuimus, we have been, we were, fuistis, you have been, you were, fuērunt, they have been, they were.

PLUPERFECT.

fueram, I had been, fueras, thou hadst been, fuerat, he had been; fuerāmus, we had been, fuerātis, you had been, fuerant, they had been.

FUTURE PERFECT.

fuero, I shall have been, fueris, thou wilt have been, fuerit, he will have been; fueritis, we shall have been, fueritis, you will have been, fuerint, they will have been.

¹ The Perfect Participle is wanting in sum.

PRESENT.

SINGULAR. sim, may I be, sīs, mayst thou be, sit, let him be, may he be;

PLURAL. sīmus, let us be, sītis, be ye, may you be, sint, let them be.

IMPERFECT.

essem,2 I should be, esses.2 thou wouldst be. esset,2 he would be:

essēmus, we should be, essētis, you would be, essent,2 they would be.

PERFECT.

fuerim, I may have been, fueris, thou mayst have been, fuerit, he may have been;

fuerimus, we may have been, fueritis, you may have been, fuerint, they may have been.

PLUPER FECT.

fuissem, I should have been, fuisses, thou wouldst have been, fuisset, he would have been:

fuissēmus, we should have been, fuissētis, vou would have been, fuissent, they would have been.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. es, be thou,

Fut. esto, thou shalt be, esto, he shall be:

este, be ye.

estote, ye shall be, sunto, they shall be.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. esse, to be.

Perf. fuisse, to have been.

Fut. futurus esse, to be about to be. Fut. futurus, about to be.

¹ The meanings of the different tenses of the Subjunctive are so many and so varied, particularly in subordinate clauses, that no attempt can be made to give them here. For fuller information the pupil is referred to the Syntax.

² For essem, esses, esset, essent, the forms forem, fores, foret, forent are sometimes used.

⁸ For futurus esse the form fore is often used.

⁴ Declined like bonus, -a, -um.

FIRST (OR A-) CONJUGATION.

101.

Active Voice. - Amo, I love.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. am**āvī** Perf. Pass. Partic.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

amo, I love, amas, you love, amat, he loves; PLURAL. amāmus, we love, amātis, you love, amant, they love.

IMPERFECT.

am**ābam**, I was loving, am**ābās**, you were loving, am**ābat**, he was loving; amābāmus, we were loving, amābātis, you were loving, amābant, they were loving.

FUTURE.

amābō, I shall love, amābis, you will love, amābit, he will love; amābimus, we shall love, amābitis, you will love, amābunt, they will love.

PERFECT.

amāvī, I have loved, I loved, amāvistī, you have loved, you loved,

amāvimus, we have loved, we loved, amāvistis, you have loved, you loved,

amāvit, he has loved, he loved;

amāvērunt, -ēre, they have loved, they loved.

PLUPERFECT.

amāveram, I had loved, amāverās, you had loved, amāverat, he had loved; amāverāmus, we had loved, amāverātis, you had loved, amāverant, they had loved.

FUTURE PERFECT.

amāverō, I shall have loved, amāveris, you will have loved, amāverit, he will have loved; amāverimus, we shall have loved, amāveritis, you will have loved, amāverint, they will have loved.

PRESENT.

SINGULAR. amem, may I love, amēs, may you love, amet, let him love:

PLURAL. amēmus, let us love. amētis, may you love, ament, let them love.

IMPERFECT.

amārem, I should love, amārēs, vou would love, amāret, he would love;

amārēmus, we should love, amārētis, you would love, amarent, they would love.

PERFECT.

amāverim, I may have loved, amāveris, you may have loved, amāverit, he may have loved;

amāverimus, we may have loved, amāveritis, you may have loved, amāverint, they may have loved.

PLUPERFECT.

amāvissem, I should have loved, amāvissēs, you would have loved, amāvisset, he would have loved;

amāvissēmus, we should have loved, amāvissētis, you would have loved, amāvissent, they would have loved.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amā, love thou;

Fut. amato, thou shalt love, am**ātō, he shall love** ;

am**āte**, love ye. amātōte, ye shall love, amanto, they shall love.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amare, to love.

Perf. amavisse, to have loved. Fut. amātūrus esse, to be about

to love.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. amans,1 loving. (Gen. amantis)

Fut. amātūrus, about to love.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. amandi, of loving,

Dat. amando, for loving,

Acc. amandum, loving,

Abl. amando, by loving.

Acc. amātum, to love,

Abl. amātū, to love, be loved.

¹ For declension of amans, see § 70. 3.

FIRST (OR A-) CONJUGATION.

102. ·

Passive Voice. — Amor, I am loved.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Ing.

Perf. Ind. am**ātus sum**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

I am loved.

PLURAL, am**āmur** am**āminī**

am**āris** am**ātur**

am**antur**

IMPERFECT.

I was loved.

amābar amābāris, or -re amābātur am**ābāmur** am**ābāminī** am**ābantur**

FUTURE.

I shall be loved.

amābor amāberis, *or* -re amābitur amābimur amābiminī amābuntur

PERFECT.

I have been loved or I was loved.

amāt**us (-a, -um**) sum ¹

amāt**ī (-ae, -a) sumus**

amātus est

amāt**ī estis** amāt**ī sunt**

PLUPERFECT.

I had been loved.

amātus eram ¹ amātus erās amātus erat amāt**ī erāmus** amāt**ī erātis** amāt**ī erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been loved.

amātus erō 1 amātus eris amātus erit amāt**ī erimus** amāt**ī eritis** amāt**ī erunt**

¹ Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc. So fueram, fueras, etc., for eram, etc.; fuero, etc., for ero, etc.

First Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be loved, let him be loved.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
amer	am ēm ur
amēris, or -re	am ēminī
amētur	amentur

IMPERFECT.

I should be loved, he would be loved.

amārer	am ārēmur
am ārēris, <i>or -</i>re	am ārēminī
amārētur	am ārentur

PERFECT.

I may have been loved.

amāt us sim ¹	amāt ī sīm us
amātu s sīs	amāt ī sītis
amāt us sit	amāt ī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been loved, he would have been loved.

amāt us essem 1	amāt ī essēmus
amāt us essēs	amāt ī essētis
amātus esset	amāt ī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	amare, be thou loved;	amāminī, be ye loved.
Fut.	amator, thou shalt be loved,	
	amātor, he shall be loved;	amantor, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

loved.

Pres. amārī, to be loved.	
Perf. amātus esse, to have been	Perfect. amātus, having been
loved.	loved.
Fut. amātum Irī, to be about to	Gerundive. amandus, to be loved,
be loved.	deserving to be

¹ Fuerim, etc., are sometimes used for sim; so fuissem, etc., for essem.

SECOND (OR E-) CONJUGATION.

103. Active Voice. — Moneō, I advise.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf. mon**ëre** Perf. Ind.

Perf. Pass. Partic. monitus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. moneō monēs monet I advise.

monēmus monētis monent

PLURAL.

IMPERFECT.

I was advising, or I advised.

monēbam monēbās monēbat mon**ēbāmus** mon**ēbātis** mon**ēbant**

FUTURE.

I shall advise.

monēbis monēbis mon**ēbimus** mon**ēbitis** mon**ēbunt**

PERFECT.

I have advised, or I advised.

monuisti monuisti monuit monu**imus** monu**istis**

monuērunt, or -ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had advised.

monueram monueras monuerat monuerāmus monuerātis monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have advised.

monueris monueris monu**erimus** monu**eritis** monu**erint**

PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. mon**eāmus** moneam moneātis mon**eās** moneant moneat

IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

monērēmus monērem monērētis monērēs monërent monëret

PERFECT.

I may have advised.

monuerim monuerimus monueris monu**eritis** monuerit monuerint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have advised, he would have advised. monuissēmus monuissem monuissēs monuissētis monuisset monuissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. mone, advise thou; monēte, advise ye. Fut. moneto, thou shalt advise, monētēte, ye shall advise,

monēto, he shall advise; monento, they shall advise.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. monēns, advising. Pres. monere, to advise. Perf. monuisse, to have advised. (Gen. monentis.)

Fut. moniturus esse, to be about Fut. moniturus, about to advise.

to advise.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. monendi, of advising,

Dat. monendo, for advising,

Acc. monendum, advising, Acc. monitum, to advise.

Abl. monendo, by advising. Abl. monitū, to advise, be advised

SECOND (OR E-) CONJUGATION.

104. Passive Voice. — Moneor, I am advised.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres, Inf. mon**ëri** Perf. Ind. monitus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. mon**eor** mon**ēris**

monētur

I am advised.

PLURAL, mon**ēmur** mon**ēminī** mon**entur**

IMPERFECT.

I was advised.

monēbāris, or -re

mon**ēbāmur** mon**ēbāminī** mon**ēbantur**

FUTURE.

I shall be advised.

mon**ēberis**, *or-*re mon**ēbitur** mon**ëbimur** mon**ëbiminī** mon**ëbuntur**

PERFECT.

I have been advised, I was advised.

monitus sum monitus es monitus est monitī sumus monitī estis monitī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been advised.

monitus eram monitus erās monitus erat monit**ī erāmus** monit**ī erātis** monit**ī erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been advised.

monitus erō
monitus eris
monitus erit

monit**ī erimus** monit**ī eritis** monit**ī erunt**

PRESENT.

May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR.
monear
moneāris, or -re
moneātur

PLURAL. moneāmur moneāminī moneantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be advised, he would be advised.

monērer monērēris, or -re monērētur monērēmur monērēminī monērentur

PERFECT.

I may have been advised.

monitus sim monitus sīs monitus sit monit**ī sīmus**monit**ī sītis**monit**ī sint**

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been advised, he would have been advised.

monitus essem monitus esses monitus esset monit**ī essēmus** monit**ī essēti**s monit**ī essent**

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monere, be thou advised;

monēminī, be ye advised.

Fut. monetor, thou shalt be ad-

vised,

monētor, he shall be advised.

monentor, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. monērī, to be advised.

Perf. monitus esse, to have been

advised.

Fut. monitum Irī, to be about to be advised.

Perfect.

monitus, advised.

Gerundive. monendus, to be advised, deserving to

be advised.

F

THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.

105.

Active Voice. — Rego, I rule.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf. regere Perf. Ind. rēx**ī** PERF. PASS. PARTIC.

rēct**us**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. reg**ö** I rule.

PLURAL. regimus

regis regit regi**tis** reg**unt**

IMPERFECT.

I was ruling, or I ruled.

reg**ēbam** reg**ēbās** reg**ēbat** reg**ēbāmus** reg**ēbātis** reg**ēbant**

FUTURE.

I shall rule.

reg**am** reg**ēs** reget reg**ēmus** reg**ētis** reg**ent**

PERFECT.

I have ruled, or I ruled.

rēx**ī** rēx**istī** rēx**it** rēx**imus** rēx**istis**

rēxērunt, or -ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had ruled.

rēx**eram** rēx**erās** rēx**erat** rēx**erāmus** rēx**erātis** rēx**erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have ruled.

rēx**erō** rēx**eris** rēx**erit** rēx**erimus** rēx**eritis** rēx**erint**

PRESENT.

May I rule, let him rule.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.
regam regāmus
regās regātis
regat regant

IMPERFECT.

I should rule, he would rule.

regerēm regerēmus
regerēs regerētis
regeret regerent

PERFECT.

rēxerim rēxerits rēxerit rēxerint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have ruled, he would have ruled.

rēxissem rēxissēmus rēxissēs rēxissētis rēxisset rēxissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. rege, rule thou; regite, rule ye.

Fut. regito, thou shalt rule, regitote, ye shall rule, regito, the shall rule; regunto, they shall rule.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. regere, to rule.

Perf. rēxisse, to have ruled.

Fut. rēctūrus esse, to be about to rule.

Pres. regēns, ruling.

(Gen. regentis.)

Fut. rēctūrus, about to rule.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. regendī, of ruling,
Dat. regendō, for ruling,
Acc. regendum, ruling,
Abl. regendō, by ruling.
Abl. rēctū, to rule, be ruled.

THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.

106. Passive Voice. — Regor, I am ruled.

-	~**		-	n ma
PRIN	CIP	AL.	ra	KIS.

Pres. Ind. regor Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. rēctus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. regor

regeris

regitur

I am ruled.

PLURAL. regimur regiminī reguntur

IMPERFECT.

I was ruled.

regēbāris, or -re regēbātur reg**ēbāmur** reg**ēbāminī** reg**ēbantur**

· FUTURE.

I shall be ruled.

reg**ār** reg**ēris**, *or* -r**e** reg**ētur** reg**ēmur** reg**ēminī** reg**entu**r

PERFECT.

I have been ruled, or I was ruled.

rēctus sum rēctus es rēctus est rēct**ī sumus** rēct**ī estis** rēct**ī sunt**

PLUPERFECT.

I had been ruled.

rēctus eram rēctus erās rēctus erat rēct**ī erāmus** rēct**ī erātis** rēct**ī erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been ruled.

rēctus er**ō** rēctus eris rēctus erit rēct**ī erimus** rēct**ī eritis** rēct**ī erunt**

PRESENT.

May I be ruled, let him be ruled.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL,
regar	reg āmur
reg āris , <i>or -</i> re	reg āminī
regātur	regantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be ruled, he would be ruled.

regerer	•	reg erēmur
reg erēris , <i>or</i> -re		reg erēminī
reg erētur		regerentur

PERFECT.

I may have been ruled.

rēctu s sim	rēct ī sīmus
rēctus s īs	rēct ī sītis
rēctus sit	rēct ī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled.

rēctus essem	rēct ī essēmu s
rēctus essēs	rēct ī essētis
rēctus esset	rēct ī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled;	regiminī, be ye ruled.
Fut. regitor, thou shalt be ruled,	
regitor, he shall be ruled;	reguntor, they shall be ruled.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. regi, to be ruled.				
Perf. rectus esse, to have been	Perfect.	rēctus, ruled.	Į.	
ruled.	Gerundive.	regendus, to	be ru	led,
Fut. rectum IrI, to be about to		deserving	to	be
be ruled.		ruled.		

FOURTH (OR I-) CONJUGATION.

107. Active Voice. — Audio, I hear.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. audiō Pres. Inf. aud**ire**

Perf. Ind. aud**īvī** PERF. PASS. PARTIC.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. aud**iõ** aud**is** audit I hear.

PLURAL, aud**Imus** aud**Itis** aud**iunt**

IMPERFECT.

I was hearing, or I heard.

audiēbam audiēbās audiēbat audiēbāmus audiēbātis audiēbant

FUTURE.

I shall **hear**.

audiam audiēs audiet aud**iēmus** aud**iētis** aud**ient**

PERFECT.

I have heard, or I heard.

audīvī audīvistī audīvit audīv**imus** audīv**istis**

audīv**ērunt**, or -ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had heard.

audīverās audīverās audīverat audīver**āmus** audīver**ātis** audīverant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have heard.

audīverō audīveris audīverit audīverimus audīveritis audīverint

PRESENT.

May I hear, let him hear.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.
audiam audiāmus
audiās audiātis
audiat audiant

IMPERFECT.

I should hear, he would hear.

audīrēm audīrēmus audīrētis audīrēt audīret

PERFECT.

I may have heard.

audīverim audīverimus audīveritis audīverit audīverint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

audīvissēm audīvissēmus audīvissēts audīvissēts audīvisset audīvissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audī, hear thou; audīte, hear ye.

Fut. audītō, thou shall hear, audītōte, ye shall hear, audītō, he shall hear; audīuntō, they shall hear.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. audīre, to hear. Pres. audīens, hearing.
Perf. audīvisse, to have heard. (Gen. audientis.)

Fut. audītūrus esse, to be about Fut. audītūrus, about to hear

to hear.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. audiendI, of hearing,

Dat. audiendo, for hearing,

Acc. audiendum, hearing, Acc. auditum, to hear,

Abl. audiendo, by hearing. Abl. audītū, to hear, be heard.

FOURTH (OR I-) CONJUGATION.

108. Passive Voice. — Audior, I am heard.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf. aud**īrī** Perf. Ind. audītus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular, aud**ior** aud**īris**

aud**ītur**

I am heard.

PLURAL. aud**īmur** aud**īminī** aud**iuntur**

IMPERFECT.

I was heard.

audiēbar audiēbāris, *or* -re audiēbātur audiēbāmur audiēbāminī audiēbantur

FUTURE.

I shall be heard.

audiār audiēris, or -re audiētur audi**ēmur** audi**ēminī** audientur

PERFECT.

I have been heard, or I was heard.

audītus sum audītus es audītus est audīt**ī sumus** audīt**ī estis** audīt**ī sunt**

PLUPERFECT.

I had been heard.

audītus eram audītus erās audītus erat audītī erāmus audītī erātis audītī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been heard.

audītus er**ō** audītus eris audītus erit audītī erimus audītī eritis audītī erunt

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

SINGULAR.

audiar audiāmur

audiāris, or -re audiāminī

audiātur audiantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

audīrēraudīrēmuraudīrēris, or -reaudīrēminīaudīrēturaudīrentur

PERFECT.

I may have been heard.

audītus sim audītī sīmus audītus sīs audītī sītis audītus sit audītī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been heard, he would have been heard.

audītus essem audītī essēmus audītus essēs audītī essētis audītus esset audītī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audīre, be thou heard; audīminī, be ye heard.

Fut. auditor, thou shalt be heard, auditor, he shall be heard; audiuntor, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. audīrī, to be heard.

Perf. audītus esse, to have been Perfect. audīt heard. Gerundive. audit

Fut. audītum īrī, to be about to be heard.

Perfect. audītus, heard.
Gerundive. audiendus, to be
heard, deserving
to be heard.

VERBS IN -IO OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

109. I. Verbs in -i5 of the Third Conjugation take the endings of the Fourth Conjugation, wherever the latter endings have two successive vowels. This occurs only in the Present System.

2. Here belong -

- a) capiō, to take; cupiō, to desire; faciō, to make; fodiō, to dig; fugiō, to flee; jaciō, to throw; pariō, to bear; quatiō, to shake; rapiō, to seize; sapiō, to taste.
- b) Compounds of lacio and specio (both ante-classical); as, allicio, entice; conspicio, behold.
- c) The deponents gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer.

110. Active Voice. — Capiō, I take.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. capiō,

Pres. Inf. capere,

Perf. Ind. cēpī, Perf. Pass. Partic. captus.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PRESENT TENSE.

PLURAL.

capiō, capis, capit;

capimus, capitis, capiunt.

IMPERFECT.

capiēbam, -iēbās, -iēbat;

capiēbāmus, -iēbātis, -iēbant.

FUTURE.

capiam, -ies, -iet;

capiēmus, -iētis, -ient.

PERFECT.

cēpī, -istī, -it;

cēpimus, -istis, -ērunt, or ēre.

PLUPERFECT.

cēperam, -erās, -erat;

cēperāmus, -erātis, -erant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

cēperō, -eris, -erit;

ceperimus, -eritis, -erint.

SINGULAR.

PRESENT.

PLURAL.

capiam, -iās, -iat;

capiāmus, -iātis, -iant.

IMPERFECT.

caperem, -erēs, -eret;

caperēmus, -erētis, -erent.

PERFECT.

cēperim, -eris, -erit;

cēperimus, -eritis, -erint.

PLUPERFECT.

cēpissem, -issēs, -isset:

cēpissēmus, -issētis, -issent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. cape;

capite.

Fut. capitō,

capitōte,

capitō ;

capiuntō.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. capere.

Pres. capiens.

Perf. cēpisse.

Fut. captūrus esse.

Fut. captūrus.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. capiendī, Dat. capiendō,

Acc. capiendum, Abl. capiendō.

Acc. captum, Abl. captū.

111. Passive Voice. — Capior, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. capior,

Pres. Inf.

PERF. IND. captus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PRESENT TENSE.

PLURAL.

capior, caperis, capitur;

capimur, capiminī, capiuntur.

IMPERFECT.

capiēbar, -iēbāris, -iēbātur;

capiēbāmur, -iēbāminī, iēbantur.

FUTURE.

capiar, -iēris, -iētur;

capiēmur, -iēminī, -ientur.

SINGULAR.

PERFECT.

PLURAL.

captus sum, es, est;

captī sumus, estis, sunt.

PLUPER FECT.

captus eram, erās, erat;

captī erāmus, erātis, erant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

captus erō, eris, erit;

captī erimus, eritis, erunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

capiar, -iāris, -iātur;

capiāmur, -iāminī, -iantur.

IMPERFECT.

caperer, -erēris, -erētur;

caperēmur, -erēminī, -erentur.

PERFECT.

captus sim, sīs, sit;

captī sīmus, sītis, sint.

PLUPERFECT.

captus essem, esses, esset;

captī essēmus, essētis, essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. capere;

capiminī.

Fut. capitor, capitor;

capiuntor.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. capī.

Perf. captus esse.

Fut. captum īrī.

Perfect. captus.

Gerundive. capiendus.

DEPONENT VERBS.

- 112. Deponent Verbs have in the main Passive forms with Active meaning. But
 - a. They have the following Active forms: Future Infinitive, Present and Future Participles, Gerund, and Supine.
 - b. They have the following Passive meanings: always in the Gerundive, and sometimes in the Perfect Passive Participle;

sequendus, to be followed; adeptus, attained.

113. Paradigms of Deponent Verbs are —

I. Conj. mīror, mīrārī, mīrātus sum, admire.

II. Conj. vereor, vererī, veritus sum, fear.

III. Conj. sequor, sequi, secutus sum, follow.

IV. Conj. largior, largīrī, largītus sum, give.

III. (in ior) patior, pati, passus sum, suffer.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	III (in -ior).
Pres.	mīror	vereor	sequor	largior	patior
	mīr āri s	verēris	sequeris	largīris	pateris
	mīrātur	verētur	sequitur	largītur	patitur
	mīrāmur	verēmur	sequimur	largīmur	patimur
	mīrāminī	verēminī	sequiminī	largīminī	patiminī
	mīrantur	verentur	sequuntur	largiuntur	patiuntur
Impf.	mīrābar	verēbar	seguēbar	largiēbar	patiēbar
Fut.	mîrābor	verebor	sequar	largiar	patiar
Perf.	mīrātus sum	veritus sum	secutus sum	largītus sum	passus sum
Plup.	mīrātus eram	veritus eram	secūtus eram	largītus eram	passus eram
F. P.	mīrātus erō	veritus erō	secūtus erō	largītus erō	passus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. mirer	verear	sequar	largiar	patiar
Impf. mirärer	verërer	sequerer	largīrer	paterer
Perf. mīrātus s	im veritus sim	secūtus sim	largītus sim	passus sim
Plup, mīrātus e	ssem veritus essem	secūtus essem	largītus essem	passus essem

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	mīrāre	verëre	sequere	largīre	patere
Fut.	mīrātor	verētor	sequitor	largitor	patitor

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	mirari	veren	sequi	largiri	pati
Perf.	mīrātus esse	veritus esse	secūtus esse	largītus esse	passus esse
Fut.	mīrātūrus esse	veritūrus esse	secütürus esse	largītūrus esse	passūrus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	mīrāns	verēns	sequēns	largiēns	patiens
Fut.	mīrātūrus	veritūrus	secūtūrus	largītūrus	passūrus
Perf.	mīrātus	veritus	secūtus	largītus	passus
Ger.	mīrandus	verendus	sequendus	largiendus	patiendus

GERUND.

mirandi,	verendî	sequendi	largiendi	patiendi
mîrandō, etc.	verendō, <i>etc</i> .	sequendo, etc.	largiendő, etc.	patiendo, etc.

SUPINE.

mīrātum, -tū veritum, -tū secūtum, -tū largītum, -tū passum, -sū

SEMI-DEPONENTS.

114. I. Semi-Deponents are verbs which have the Present System in the Active Voice, but the Perfect System in the Passive without change of meaning. Here belong —

audeō, audēre, ausus sum, to dare.
gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvīsus sum, to rejoice.
soleō, solēre, solitus sum, to be wont.
fīdō, fīdere, fīsus sum, to trust.

2. The following verbs have a Perfect Passive Participle with Active meaning:—

adolēsco, grow up; adultus, having grown up. cēnāre, dine; cēnātus, having dined.

placere, please; placitus, having pleased, agreeable.

prandère, piease; prantius, naving pieasea, prandère, lunch; pransus, having lunched. pôtare, drink; pôtus, having drunk. jūrātus, having sworn.

a. Jūrātus is used in a passive sense also.

3. Revertor and devertor both regularly form their Perfect in the Active Voice; viz. —

revertor, revertī (Inf.), revertī (Perf.), to return. dēvertor, dēvertī (Inf.), dēvertī (Perf.), to turn aside.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

115. There are two Periphrastic Conjugations,—the Active and the Passive. The Active is formed by combining the Future Active Participle with the auxiliary sum, the Passive by combining the Gerundive with the same auxiliary.

Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. amātūrus (-a, -um) sum, I am about to love.

Imp. amātūrus eram, I was about to love.
Fut. amātūrus erō, I shall be about to love.

Perf. amātūrus fuī, I have been (was) about to love. Plup. amātūrus fueram, I had been about to love.

Fut. P. amaturus fuero, I shall have been about to love.

Pres. amātūrus sim, I may be about to love.

Imp. amātūrus essem, I might be about to love.

Perf. amātūrus fuerim, I may have been about to love.

Plup. amātūrus fuissem, I might have been about to love.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amaturus esse, to be about to love.

Perf. amaturus fuisse, to have been about to love.

Passive Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. amandus (-a, -um) sum, I am to be loved, must be loved.

Imp. amandus eram, I was to be loved.

Fut, amandus oro, I shall deserve to be loved.

Perf. amandus fui, I was to be loved.

Plup. amandus fueram, I had deserved to be loved.

Fut. P. amandus fuero, I shall have deserved to be loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. amandus sim, I may deserve to be loved.

Imp. amandus essem, I might deserve to be loved.

Perf. amandus fuerim, I may have deserved to be loved.

Plup. amandus fuissem, I might have deserved to be loved.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amandus esse, to deserve to be loved.

Perf. amandus fuisse, to have deserved to be loved.

PECULIARITIES OF CONJUGATION.

116. 1. Perfects in -āvī, -ēvī and -īvī, with the forms derived from them, often drop the ve or vi before endings beginning with r or s. So also novī (from nosco) and the compounds of movī (from moveo). Thus:—

amāvistī	amāstī	dēlēvistī	dēlēstī
amāvisse	amässe	dēlēvisse	dēlēsse
amāvērunt	amārunt	dēlēvērunt	dēlērunt
amāverim	amārim	dēlēverim	dēlērim
amāveram	amāram	dēlēveram	dēlēram
amāverō	amārō	dēlēverō	dēlērō
nōvistī	nōstī	nōverim	nōrim
nōvisse	nōsse	nōveram	nōram
audīvistī	audīsti	audīvisse	audīsse

- 2. In the Gerund and Gerundive of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, the endings -undus, -undI, often occur instead of -endus and -endI, as faciundus, faciundI.
- 3. Dicō, dūcō, faciō, form the Imperatives, dīc, dūc, fac. But compounds of faciō form the Imperative in -fice, as cōnfice. Compounds of dīcō, dūcō accent the ultima; as, ēdūc, ēdīc.
 - 4. Archaic and Poetic forms:
 - a. The ending -ier in the Present Infinitive Passive; as, amarier, monerier, dicier, for amari, moneri, dici.
 - b. The ending -Ibam for -iēbam in Imperfects of the Fourth Conjugation, and -Ibō for -iam in Futures; as, scībam, scībō, for sciēbam, sciam.
 - c. Instead of the fuller forms, in such words as dīxistī, scrīpsistis, surrēxisse, we sometimes find dīxtī, scrīpstis, surrēxe.
 - d. The endings -im, -īs, etc. (for -am, -ās, etc.) occur in a few Subjunctive forms; as, edim (eat), duint, perduint.
- 5. In the Future Active and Perfect Passive Infinitive, the auxiliary esse is often omitted; as, acturum for acturum esse; ejectus for ejectus esse.

FORMATION OF THE VERB-STEMS.

Formation of the Present Stem.

- 117. Many verbs employ the Verb Stem for the Present Stem; ¹ as, dicere, ducere, amare, monere, audire. Others form the Present Stem variously, as follows:—
 - By appending the vowels a, e, I; as, —
 juvare, Present Stem juva- (Verb Stem juv-).
 augere, " auge- (" aug-).
 vincire. " vinci- (" vinc-).
 - 2. By adding i, as capio, Present Stem capi- (Verb Stem cap-).
- 3. By the insertion of n (m before labial-mutes) before the final consonant of the Verb Stem; as, fundō (Stem fud-), rumpō (Stem rup-).
 - 4. By appending -n to the Verb Stem; as, —

cern-ō pell-ō (for pel-nō).

¹ Strictly speaking, the Present Stem always ends in a Thematic Vowel (ĕ or ŏ); as, dic-ĕ-, dic-ĕ-, amĕ-ĕ-, amĕ-ŏ-. But the multitude of phonetic changes involved prevents a scientific treatment of the subject here. See the Appendix.

- 5. By appending t to the Verb Stem; as,—
 flect-5.
- By appending sc to the Verb Stem; as, orēsc-ō scīsc-ō.
- 7. By Reduplication, that is, by prefixing the initial consonant of the Verb Stem with i; as,—

gi-gn-ō (root gen-).

si-st-ō (root sta-).

Formation of the Perfect Stem.

- 118. The Perfect Stem is formed from the Verb Stem —
- 1. By adding v (in case of Vowel Stems); as,—

amāv-ī,

dēlēv-ī,

audīv-ī.

- By adding u (in case of some Consonant Stems); as,—
 strepu-ī, genu-ī, alu-ī.
- 3. By adding s (in case of most Consonant Stems); as, —

carp-ō, Perfect carps-ī.

scrīb-ō, " scrīps-ī (for scrīb-sī).

rīd-eō, " rīs-ī (for rīd-sī).

sent-iō, " sēns-ī (for sent-sī).

dīc-ō, " dīx-ī (i.e. dīc-sī).

- a. Note that before the ending -sI a Dental Mute (t, d) is lost; a Guttural Mute (c, g) unites with s to form x; while the Labial b is changed to p.
- 4. Without addition. Of this formation there are three types:
 - a) The Verb Stem is reduplicated by prefixing the initial consonant with the following vowel or e; as,—

currō, Perfect cu-currī.

poscō, " po-poscī.

pellō, " pe-pulī..

NOTE 1.—Compounds, with the exception of do, sto, disco, posco, omit the reduplication. Thus: com-pull, but re-poposci.

NOTE 2. — Verbs beginning with sp or st retain both consonants in the reduplication, but drop s from the stem; as, spondeo, spo-pondi; sto, steti.

- b) The short vowel of the Verb Stem is lengthened; as, legō, lēgī; agō. ēgī. Note that ă by this process becomes ē.
- c) The vowel of the Verb Stem is unchanged; as, vertō, vertī; minuō, minuī.

Formation of Participial Stem.

- 119. The Perfect Passive Participle, from which the Participial Stem is derived by dropping -us, is formed:—
- 1. By adding -tus (sometimes to the Present Stem, sometimes to the Verb Stem); as, —

```
amā-re, Participle amā-tus.
dēlē-re, " dēlē-tus.
audī-re, " 'audī-tus.
leg-ere, " lēc-tus.
scrīb-ere, " scrīp-tus.
sentī-re, " sēn-sus (for sent-tus).
caed-ere, " cae-sus (for caed-tus).
```

- a. Note that g, before t, becomes c (see § 8, 5); b becomes p; while dt or tt became 88, which was then often simplified to s (§ 8, 2).
- 2. After the analogy of Participles like sonsus and caesus, where -sus arises by phonetic change, -sus for -tus is added to other Verb Stems; as,—

 lab-i, Participle lap-sus.

fig-ere, "fi-xus.

- a. The same consonant changes occur in appending this ending -Sus to the stem as in the case of the Perfect ending -Si (see § 118, 3, a).
- 3. A few Verbs form the Participle in -Itus; as, -

domā-re, dom-ĭtus. monē-re, mon-ĭtus.

4. The Future Active Participle is usually identical in its stem with the Perfect Passive Participle; as, amā-tus, amātūrus; monitus, monitūrus. But—

ju vā- re,	Perf.	Partic.	jūtus,	has	Fut.	Act.	Partic.	ju v ātūrus.¹
lavä-re,	"	"	lautus,	"	"	"	"	lavātūrus.
par-ere,	"	46	partus,	"	"	"	"	paritūrus.
ru-ere,	"	44	-rutus,	"	"	"	"	ruitūrus.
secā-re,	"	"	sectus,	"	"	"	"	secātūrus.
fru-ī,	"	"	-frūctus,	"	"	"	"	fruitūrus.
mor-ī,	"	"	mortuus,	44	44	"	"	moritūrus.
orī-rī,	"	"	ortus,	"	44	44	"	oritūrus.

¹ But the compounds of juvo sometimes have -jūtūrus; as, adjūtūrus.

LIST OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS WITH PRINCIPAL PARTS.

First $(\bar{A}-)$ Conjugation.

120. I. PERFECT IN -VI.

amō amāre amāvī amātus love
All regular verbs of the First Conjugation follow this model.
pōtō pōtāre pōtāvī pōtus (§ 114, 2) drink

II. PERFECT IN -UI.

	CI DCI III	-		
crepō	crepāre	crepuī	crepitūrus·	rattle
cubō	cubāre	cubuī	cubitūrus	lie down
domõ	domāre	domuī	domitūrus	tame
fricō	fricāre	fricuī	frictus and fricatus	rub
micō	micāre	micuī		glitter
dīmicō	dīmicāre	dīmicāvī	dīmicātum (est)1	fight
ex-plicō	explicăre	explicāvī (-uī)	explicātus (-itus)	unfold
im-plicō	implicāre	implicāvī (-uī)	implicātus (-itus)	entwin e
secō	secāre	secuī	sectus	cut
sonō	sonāre	sonuī	sonātūrus	sound
tonō	tonāre	tonuī		thunder
vetō	vetār e	vetuī	vetitus	forbid

III. PERFECT IN -I WITH LENGTHENING OF THE STEM VOWEL.

juvõ	juvāre	jūvī	jūtus	help
lavō	lavār e	lāvī	lautus	wash

IV. DEPONENTS.

These are all regular, and follow miror, mirārī, mirātus sum.

Second (\bar{E}_{-}) Conjugation.

121. I. PERFECT IN -VĪ.

dēleō fleō com-pleō ² aboleō	abolēre	dēlēvī flēvī complēvī abolēvī	dēlētus flētus complētus abolitus	destroy weep, lament fill up destroy
cieō 8	ciēre	cīvī	citus	set in motion

¹ Used only impersonally.

² So impleo, expleo.

⁸ Compounds follow the Fourth Conjugation: acciō, accīre, etc.

II. PERFECT IN -UI.

\dot{a} . Type -eō, -ēre, -uī, -itus.

arceō	arcēre	arcuī		keep off
coerceō	coercēre	coercuī	coercitus	hold in check
exerceō	exercēre	exercuī	exercitus	practise
caleō	calēre	caluī	calitūrus	be warm
careō	carēre	caruī	caritūrus	be without ·
dol e ō	dolēre	doluī	dolitūrus	grieve
habeō	habēre	habu ī	habitus	have
dēbeō	dēbēr e	dēbuī	dēbitus	owe
praebeō	praebēr e	praebuī	praebitus	offer
jaceō	jacēre ·	jacuī	jacitūrus	lie
mereō	merēr e	meruî	meritus	earn, deserve
moneō	monēr e	monuī	monitus	advise
noceō	nocēre	nocuī	nocitum (est)	injure
pāreō	p ār ēr e	pāruī	pāritūrus	obey
placeō	placēre	placuī	placitūrus	please
taceō	tacēre	tacuī	tacitūrus	be silent
terreõ	terrēre	terruī	territus	frighten
valeō	valēr e	valuī	valitūrus	be strong

NOTE 1. - The following lack the Participial Stem: -

e geō	egēr e	eguī		want
ēmineō	ēminēre	ēminuī		stand forth
flōreō	flörēre	flōruī		bloom
horreō	horrēre	horruī		bristle
lateō	latēr e	latuī		lurk
niteō	nitēr e	nituī		gleam
oleō	olēre	oluī		smell
palleō	pallēr e	palluī		be pale
pateō	patēre	patuī		lie open
rubeō	rubēre	rubuī		be red
sileō	silēr e	siluī		be silent
splend e ō	splendēre	splenduī		gleam
studeō	studēre	studuī		study
stupeō	stupēre	stupuī		be amazed
timeō	timēre	timuī		fear
torpeō	torpēre	torpuī		be dull
vigeō	vigēre	viguī		flourish
vireō	virēre	viruī		be green
		and others.		

NOTE 2. —	The following a	re used only i	n the Present S	ystem : —
aveō	avēre	'		wish
frīgeō	frīgēre			be cold
immineō	imminēr e			overhang
maereō	maerēre			mourn
polleō	pollēre			be strong
	-	and others.		•
<i>b</i> . Туре -е	ō, -ēre, -uī, -tu	s (-sus).		
cēnseō	cēnsēre	cēnsuī	cēnsus	estimate
doceō	docēre	docuī	doctus	teach
misceō	miscēre	miscui	mixtus ·	mix
teneō	tenēr e	tenuī		hold
So contined	and sustineō;	but —		
retineō	retinēre	retinuī	retentus	retain
obtineō	obtinēre	obtinuī	obtentus	maintain
torreō	torrēre	torruī	tostus	bake
III. Perf	ect in -8 1.	•		
a ug e ō	augēre	auxī	auctus	increase
torqueō	torquēre	torsī	tortus	twist
indulgeō ·	indulgēre	indulsī		indulge
lūceō	lūcēre	lūxī		be light
lūgeō	lū gēre	lūxī		mourn
jub e ō	jubēre	jussī	jussus	order
per-mulceō	permulcēre	permulsī	permulsus	soothe
rīdeō	rīdēre	rīsī	rīsum (est)	laugh
suādeō	suādēre	suāsī	suāsum (est)	advise
abs-terg e ō	abstergēre	abstersī	abstersus	wipe off
ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsūrus	burn
haereō	haerër e	haesī	haesūrus	stick
maneō	manëre	mānsī	mānsūrus	stay
algeō	algēre	alsī		be cold
fulgeõ	fulgēre	fulsī		gleam
urgeō	urgër e	ursī		press
IV Deper	ECT IN -Ī WITH	DEDURE ICAM	TON.	
mordeō	mordēre	momordī		bite
spondeō		_	morsus	
sponaeo tondeō	spondēre tondēre	spopondī totondī	spōnsus tōnsus	promise shear
pendeō	pendēre			hang
bennen	hennere	pependī		mung

V. PERFECT IN -I WITH LENGTHENING OF STEM VOWEL.

caveō	cavēre	cāvī	cautūrus	take care
faveō	favēre	fāvī	fautūrus	favor
foveō	fovē re	fõvī	fōtus	cherish
moveō	movēr e	mõvī	mōtus	move
paveō	pavēre	pāvī		fear
sed e ō	sedēre	sēdī	sessūrus	sit
vid eō	vid ēr e	vīdī	vīsus	see
voveō	vovēre	vōvī	võtus	ขอาบ

VI. Perfect in -\(\bar{1}\) without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

ferveō	fervēr e	fervī (ferbuī)		boil
prandeō	prandēre	prandī	prānsus (§ 114, 2)	lunch
strīdeō	strīdēre	strīdī		creak

VII. DEPONENTS.

liceor	licērī	licitus sum	bid
polliceor	polli c ērī	pollicitus sum	promise
mereor	merērī	meritus sum	earn
misereor	miserērī	miseritus sum	pity
vereor	verērī	veritus sum	fear
fateor	fatērī	fassus sum	confess
confiteor	cōnfitērī	cōnfessus sum	confess
reor	rērī	ratus sum .	think
medeor	medērī		heal
tueor	tuērī		protect

Third (Consonant) Conjugation.

122. I. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN A CONSONANT.

1. Perfect in -sī.

a. Type -5, -ĕre, -sī, -tus.

carpō	carpere	carpsī	carptus	pluck
sculpō	sculpere	sculpsī	sculptus	chisel
rēpō	rēpere	rēpsī		creep
serpõ	serpere	serpsī		crawl
scrībō	scrībere	scrīpsī	scrīptus	write
nūbō	nūber e	nūpsī	nūpta (woman only)	marry
regō	regere	rēxī	rēctus	govern

tegō	tegere	tēxī	tēctus	cover
af-flīgō	affligere	afflīxī	afflictus	shatter
dīcō	dīcere	dīxī	dictus	say
dūcō	dūcere	dūxī	ductus	lead
coquō	coquere	coxī	coctus	cook
trahō	trahere	trāxī	trāctus	draw
vehō	vehere	vexī	vectus	carry
cingō	cingere	cīnxī	cīnctus	gird
tingō	tingere	tīnxī	tīnctus	dip
jungō	jungere	jūnxī	jūnctus	join
fingō	fingere	fīnxī	fīctus	mould
pingō	pingere	pīnxī	pīctus	paint
stringō	stringere	strīnxī	strīctus	bind
-stinguõ ¹	-stinguere	-stīnxī	-stinctus	blot out
unguō	unguere	ūnxī	ūnctus	anoint
v īvō	vīvere	vīxī	vīctum (est)	live
gerō	gerere	gessī	gestus	carry
ūrō ·	ūrere	ussī	ūstus	burn
tem n ō	temner e	con-tempsī	con-temptus	despise

b. Type -5, -ĕre, -sī, -sus.

fīgō	fīgere	fīxī	fīxus	fasten
mergō	mergere	mersī	mersus	sink
spargō	spargere	sparsī	sparsus	scatter .
flectō	flectere	flexī	flexus	bend
nectō	nectere	nexuī (nexī)	nexus	twine
mittō	mittere	mīsī	missus	send
rādō	rādere	rāsī	rāsus	shave
rōdō	rödere	rōsī	rõsus	gnaw
vādō	vādere	-vāsī ²	-vāsum (est) ²	march, walk
lūdō	lūdere	lūsī	lūsum (est)	play
trūdō ·	trūder e	trūsī	trūsus	push
laedō	Iae dere	laesī	laesus	injure, hurt
claudō	claudere	clausī	clausus	close
plaudō	plaudere	plausī	plausum (est)	clap
explōdō	explōdere	explōsī	e xplōsus	hoot off
cēdō	cēdere	cessī	cessum (est)	withdraw
dīvidō	dīvidere	dīvīsī	dīvīsu s	divide
premō	premere	pressī	pressus	press

¹ Fully conjugated only in the compounds: exstinguo, restinguo, distinguo.

² Only in the compounds: ēvādō, invādō, pervādō.

2. Perfect in -I with Reduplication.

ab-dō	abder e	abdidī	abditus	conceal
red-dō	red-dere	reddidī	redditus	return
So addō,	condō, dēdō, pe	erdō, prōdō,	trādō, etc.	
cōn-sistō	cōnsistere	constiti		take one's stand
resistō	resistere	restitī		resist
circumsistō	circumsistere	circumstetī		surround
cadō	cadere	cecidī	cāsūrus	fall
caedō	caedere	cecīdī	caesus	kill
pendō	pendere	pependī	pēnsus	weigh, pay
tendō	tendere	tetendī	tentus	stretch
tundō	tundere	tutudī	tūsus, tūnsus	beat
fallō	fallere	fefellī	(falsus, as Adj.)	deceive
pellō	pellere	pepulī	pulsus	drive out
currō	currere	cucurrī	cursum (est)	run
parcō	parcere	pepercī	parsūrus	spare
canō	canere	cecinī		sing
tangō	tangere	tetigī	tāctus	touch
pungō	pungere	pupugī	pūnctus	brick

NOTE. — In the following verbs the perfects were originally reduplicated, but have lost the reduplicating syllable: —

per-cellō	percellere	perculī	perculsus	strike down
findō	findere	fidī	fissus	split
scindō	scindere	scidī	scissus	tear apart
tollō	tollere	sus-tulī	sublātus	remove

3. Perfect in -I with Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.

agō	agere	ēgī	āctus	drive, do
peragō	peragere	perēgī	perāctus	finish
subigō	subigere	subēgī	subāctus	subdue
cōgō	cōgere	coēgī	coāctus	force, gather
frangō	frangere	frēgī	frāctus	break
perfringō	perfringere	perfrēgī	perfrāctus	break down
legō	legere	lēgī	lēctus	gather, read
perl eg ö	perlegere	perlēgī	perlēctus	read through
colligō	colligere	collēgī	collēctus	collect
dēligō	dēligere	dēlēgī	dēlēctus	choose
dīligō	dīligere	dīlēxī	dīlēctus	love
intellegō	intellegere	intellēxī	intellēctus	understand
neglegō	neglegere	neglēxi	neglēctus	neglect

emõ	emere	ēmī	ēmptus	buy
coëmō	coëmere	coēmī	coēmptus	buy up
redimō	redimere	redēmī	redēmptus	buy back
dirimō	dirimere	dirēmī	dirēmptus	destroy
dēmō	dēmere	dēmpsī	dēmptus	take away
sūmō	sūmere	sūmpsī	sūmptus	take
prōmō	prōmere	prōmpsī	(promptus, as Adj.)	take out
vincō	vincere	vīcī	victus	conquer
re-linquō	relinquere	relīquī	relīctus	leave
rumpō	rumpere	rūpī	ruptus	break
edō	edere	ēdī	ēsus	eat
fundō	funder e	fūdī	fūsus	pour

4. Perfect in -I without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.

excūdō	excūdere	excūdī	excūsus	hammer
cōnsīdō	cōnsīdere	cōnsēdī		take one's seat
possīdō	possīdere	possēdī	possessus	take posses- sion
accendō	accendere	accendī	accēnsus	kindle
a-scendō	ascendere	ascendī	ascēnsum (est)	climb
dē-fendō	dēfendere	dēfendī	dēfēnsus	defend
pre-hendō	prehendere	prehendī	prehēnsus	seize
īcō	īcere	īcī	ictus	strike
vellō	vellere	vellī	vulsus	pluck
vertō	vertere	vertī	versus	turn
pandō	pandere	pandī	passus	spread
solvō	solvere	solvī	solūtus	loose
vīsō	vīsere	vīsī	vīsus	visit
volvō	volvere	volvī	volūtus	roll
verrō	verrere	verrī	versus	swe ep

5. Perfect in -uī.

J 0.1.				
in-cumbō	incumbere	incubuī	incubitūrus	lean on
gignō	gīgnere	genuī	genitus	bring forth
molō	molere	moluī	molitus	grind
vomō	vomere	vomuī	vomitus	vomit
fremō	fremere	fremuĩ		snort
gemō	gemere	gemuī		sigh
metō	metere	messuī	messus	reap

tremō	tremere	tremuī		tremble
strepõ	strepere	strepuī		rattle
alō	alere	aluī	altus (alitus)	nourish
colō	colere	coluī	cultus	cultivate
incolō	incolere	incoluī		inhabit
excolō	excolere	excoluī	excultus	perfect
cōnsulō	consulere	cōnsuluī	cōnsultus	consult
cōnserō	conserere	cōnseruī	cōnsertus	join
dēs e rō	dēserere	dēseruī	dēsertus	desert
disserō	disserere	disseruī		discourse
texō	texere	texuī	textus	weave

6. Perfect in -vī.

sinō	sinere	sīvī	situs	allow
dēsinō	dēsinere	dēsiī	dēsitus	cease
pōnō	põnere	posuī	positus	place
ob-linō	oblinere	oblēvī	oblitus	smear
serō	serere	sēvī	satus	sow
cōnserō	conserere	cōnsēvī	cōnsitus	plant
cernō	cernere			separate
discernō	discernere	discrēvī	discrētus	distinguish
dēcernō	dēcernere	dēcrēvī	dēcrētus	decide
spernō	spernere	sprēvī	sprētus	scorn
sternō	sternere	strāvī	strātus	spread
prō-sternō	prösternere	prōstrāvī	prōstrātus	overthrow
petō	petere	petīvī (petiī)	petītus	seek
appetō	appetere	appetīvī	appetītus	long for
terō	terere	trīvī	trītus	rub
quaerō	quaerere	quaesīvī	quaesītus	seek
acquīrō	acquīrere	acquīsīvī	acquīsītus	acquire
arcessõ	arcessere	arcessīvī	arcessītus	summon
capessõ	capessere	capessīvī	capessītus	seize
lacessõ	lacessere	lacessīvī	lacessītus	provoke

7. Used only in Present System.

angõ	angere	 	choke
lambō	lambere	 	lick
claudō	claudere	 	be lame
furō	furere	 	rave
vergō	vergere	 	bend

and a few others.

II. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -U.

induō	induere	induī	indūtus	put on
imbuõ	imbuere	imbuī	imbūtus	moisten
luō	luere	luī		wash
polluō	polluere	polluī	pollūtus	defile
minuō	minuere	minuī	minūtus	lessen
statuō	statuere	statuī	s ta tūt us	set up
cōnstituō	constituere	constituī	cōnstitūtus	determine
suō	suere	suī	sūtus	sew
tribuō	tribuere	tribuī	tribūtus	allot
ruō	ruere	ruī	ruitūrus	fall
dīruō	dīruere	dīruī	dīrutus	destroy
obruō	obruere	obruī	obrutus	overwhelm
acuō	acuere	acuī		sharpen
arguō	arguere	arguī		accuse
congruō	congruere	congruī		agree
metuō	mețuere	metuī		fear
ab-nuō	abnuere	abnuī		decline
re-spuō	respuere	respuī		reject
struō	struere	strūxī	strūctus	build
fluō	fluere	fluxī .	(fluxus, as Adj.)	flow

III. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -I.

cupiō	cupere	cupīvī	cupītus	wish
sapiō	sapere	sapīvī		taste
rapiō	rapere	rapuī	raptus	snatch
dīripiō	dīripere	dīripuī	dīreptus	plunder
cōnspiciō	cōnspicere	conspexi	conspectus	gaze at
aspiciō	aspicere	aspexī	aspectus	behold
illiciō	illicere	illexī	illectus	allure
pelliciō	pellicere	pellexī	pellectus	allure
ēliciō	ēlicere	ēlicuī	ēlicitus	elicit
quatiō	quatere		quassus	shake
concutiō	concutere	concussī	concussus	shake
pariō	parere	peperī	partus	bring forth
capiō	capere	cēpī	captus	take
accipiō	accipere	accēpī	acceptus	accept
incipiō	incipere	incēpī	inceptus	begi n
faciō	facere	fēcī	factus	make
afficiō	afficere	affēcī	affectus	affect

Passive, afficior, afficī, affectus sum.

So other prepositional compounds, perficio, perficior; interficio, interficior; etc. But -

assuēfaciō assuēfacere assuēfēcī assuēfactus accustom Passive assuēfīō, assuēferī, assuēfactus sum.

So also patefacio, patefio; calefacio, calefio; and all non-prepositional compounds.

jaci ō	jacere	jēcī	jactus	hurl
abiciō	abicere	abjēcī	abjectus	throw away
fodiō	fodere	fōdī	fossus	dig
fugiō	fugere	fūgī	fugitūrus	flee
effugiō	effugere	effügī		escape

IV. VERBS IN -SCO.

Verbs in -sco from Simple Roots.

poscō	poscere	poposcī		demand
discō	discere	didicī		learn
pāscō	pāscere	pāvī	pāstus	feed
pāscor	pāsci	pāstus sur	n	graze
crēscō	crēscere	crēvī	crētus	grow
cōnsuēscō	consuescere	consuevi	cōnsuētus	accustom one's self
quiēs c ō	quiēscere	quiēvī	quiētūrus	be still
adolēscō	adolēscere	adolēvī		grow up
obsolēscō	obsolēscere	obsolēvī		grow old.
nōscō	nõscere	nōvī		become acquainted with
ignōscō	ignöscere	ignövī	ignõtūrus	pardon
agnōscō	agnöscere	agnövī	agnitus	recognize
cognōscō	cognöscere	cognōvī	cognitus	get acquainted with

2. Verbs in -sco formed from other Verbs.

These usually have Inchoative or Inceptive meaning (see § 155. 1). When they have the Perfect, it is the same as that of the Verbs from which they are derived.

flőr ēsc ő	flörëscere	flöruī	begin to bloom	(flōreō)
scīscō	scīscere	scīvī	enact	(sciō)
ārēscō	ārēscer e	āruī	become dry	(āreō)
calēscō	calēscere	caluī	become hot	(caleō)
cōnsenēscō	cōnsenēscere	cōnsenuī	grow old	(seneō)
extim ē s c ō	e xtimēscere	extimuī	fear greatly	(timeō)
ingemīscō	ingemīscere	ingemuī	sigh	(gemō)
adhaerēscō	adhaerēscere	adhaesī	stick	(haereō)

3. Verbs in -scō derived from Nouns, usually with Inchoative meaning.

obdūrēscō obdürēscere obdūruī grow hard (dūrus) ēvānuī ēvānēscō ēvānēscere disappear (vānus) grow fresh percrebresco percrebrescere percrebrui (crēber) mātūrēscō mātūrēscere mātūruī grow ripe (mātūrus) obmūtēscō obmūtēscere obmūtuī grow dumb (mūtus)

V. DEPONENTS.

fungor fungī fünctus sum perform queror queri questus sum complain loquor loqui locūtus sum speak sequor sequī secūtus sum follow fruor fruī fruitūrus enjov perfruor perfruī perfrüctus sum thoroughly enjoy lābor lābī lāpsus sum glide amplector amplectī amplexus sum embrace nītor nītī strive nīsus sum, nīxus sum gradior walkgradī gressus sum patior patī suffer passus sum perpetior endure perpetī perpessus sum ütor ūtī ūsus sum use morior die morī mortuus sum adipīscor adipīscī adeptus sum acquire comminiscor comminîscî commentus sum invent reminīscor reminīscī remember nancīscor nancīscī nanctus (nactus) sum acquire be born nāscor nāscī nātus sum oblīvīscor oblīvīscī oblītus sum forget covenant paciscor pacīscī pactus sum proficiscor proficisci profectus sum set out ulcīscor ulcīscī ultus sum avenge īrāscor īrāscī (īrātus, as Adj.) be angry vescor vescī eat

Fourth Conjugation.

123. I. PERFECT ENDS IN -VĪ.

audiō audīre audīvī audītus hear
So all regular Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.
sepeliō sepelīre sepelīvī sepultus bury

				_
TT	PERFECT	PATTO	TAT	TTT
	IERFELI	ENDS	IN	-01.

aperiō	aperīre	aperuī	apertus	open
operiō	operīre	operuī	opertus	cover
saliō	salīre	saluī		leap

III. PERFECT ENDS IN -SI.

saepiō	saepīre	saepsī	saeptus	hedge in
sanciō	sancīre	sānxī	sānctus	ratify
vinciō	vincīre	vinxī	vinctus	bind
amiciō	amicīre		amictus	envelope
fulciō	fulcīre	fulsī	fultus	prop up
referciō	refercīre	refersī	refertus	fill
sarciō	sarcīre	sarsī	sartus	patch
hauriō	haurīre	hausī	haustus	draw
se ntiō	sentīre	sēnsī	sēnsus	feel

IV. PERFECT IN -I WITH LENGTHENING OF STEM VOWEL.

veniō	venīre	vēnī	ventum (est)	come
adveniō	advenīre	a dvēnī	adventum (est)	arrive
inveniō	invenīr e	invēnī	inventus	find

V. PERFECT WITH LOSS OF REDUPLICATION.

reperiō	reperīre	repperī	repertus	find
comperiō	comperire	comperī	compertus	learn

VI. USED ONLY IN THE PRESENT.

feriō	ferīre	 	strike
ēsuriō	ēsurīre	 	be hungry

VII. DEPONENTS.

largior	largīrī	largītus sum	bestow
So many	others.		
experior	experīrī	expertus sum	try
opperior	opperīrī	oppertus sum	await
ōrdior	ōrdīrī	õrsus sum	begi n
orior	orīrī	ortus sum	arise

Orior also admits forms of the Third Conjugation; as, oreris, oritur, orimur; orerer (Imp. Subj.); orere (Imper.).

mētior	mētīrī	mēnsus sum	measure
assentior	assentīrī	assēnsus sum	assent

IRREGULAR VERBS.

- 124. A number of Verbs are called Irregular. The most important are sum, dō, edō, ferō, volō, nōlō, mālō, eō, ffō. The peculiarity of these Verbs is that they append the personal endings in many forms directly to the stem, instead of employing a connecting vowel, as fer-s (2d Sing. of fer-ō) instead of fer-is. They are but the relics of what was-once in Latin a large class of Verbs.
- 125. The Inflection of sum has already been given. Its various compounds are inflected in the same way. They are—

absum	abesse	āfuī	am absent
	Pres. Partic. abs	sēns (absentis), <i>a</i>	bsent.
adsum	adesse	adfuī	am present
dēsum	deess e	dēfuī	am lacking
īnsum	inesse	īnfuī	am in
intersum	interesse	interfuī	am among
praesum	praeesse	praefuī	am in charge of
-	Pres. Partic. praes	sēns (praesentis)	present.
obsum	obesse	obfuī	hinder
prōsum	prōdesse	prōfuī	am of advantage
subsum	subesse	subfuī	am at the basis of
supersum	superesse	superfuī	am left

Note.—Prōsum is compounded of prōd (earlier form of prō) and sum; the d disappears before consonants, as prōsumus, but prōdestis.

126. Possum. In its Present System possum is a compound of pot- (for pote, able) and sum; potuī is from an obsolete potēre.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

to be able. potuī. possum, posse. INDICATIVE MOOD. SINGULAR. PLURAL. Pres. possum, potes, potest; possumus, potestis, possunt. poteram; poterāmus. Imp.poterimus. Fut. poterō; Perf. potuī; potuimus. Plup. potueram; potuerāmus. Fut. P. potuero; potuerimus.

Inflections.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. possim, possīs, possit; possīmus, possītis, possint.

Imp. possem; possēmus.

Perf. potuerim; potuerimus.

Plub. potuissem; potuerimus.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. posse. Pres. potens (as an adjective).

Perf. potuisse.

127. **Dō**, *I give*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

dō, dăre, dedī, dătus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. dō, dās, dat; dāmus, dātis, dant.

Imp.dăbam, etc.;dăbāmus.Fut.dăbō, etc.;dăbimus.Perf.dedī;dedimus.

Pery. dedi; dedimus.

Plup. dederam; dederāmus.

Fut. P. dederō; dederimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.dem;dēmus.Imp.dărem;dărēmus.Perf.dederim;dederimus.

Plup. dedissem; dedissēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. dā; dăte.
Fut. dătō; dătōte.

dătō; dantō.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. dăre. dāns.

Perf. dedisse.
Fut. dătūrus esse. dătūrus.

GERUND. SUPINE.

dandī, etc. dătum, dătū.

- 1. The Passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel. Thus: dărī, dătur, dăbātur, dărētur, etc.
- 2. The archaic and poetic forms duim, duint, interduō, perduint, etc., are not from the root da-, but from du-, a collateral root of similar meaning.
- 128. Edő, *I eat*. This verb, in addition to its regular inflection, sometimes has duplicate forms in certain tenses of the Present System.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

edő,

edere,

ēdī,

ēsus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. edō

edimus editis, ēst**is**

edis, ēs edit, ēst

edunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. ederem, ēssem

ederēmus, ēssēmus

ederēs, ēssēs

ederētis, ēssētis ederent, ēssent

ederet, ēsset e

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ede, ēs Fut. editō, ēstō

edite, ëste editote, ëstote

editō, ēstō

eduntō

INFINITIVE.

Pres.

edere, ēsse

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 3d Sing. editur, ēstur

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. 3d Sing. ederētur, ēssētur

- 1. Observe the long vowel of the abbreviated forms, which alone distinguishes them from the corresponding forms of esse, to be.
- 2. Note comedō, comedere, comēdī, comēsus or comēstus, consume.

129.

Ferō, I bear.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

ferð,

ferre,

tulI,

lātus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

Pres. ferō, fers, fert;

PLURAL.

rt; ferimus, fertis, ferunt.1

Imp. ferēbam;
Fut. feram;

ferēbāmus. ferēmus.

Perf. tulī;

tulimus. tulerāmus.

Plup. tuleram; Fut. P. tulerō;

tulerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. feram;
Imp. ferrem;
Perf. tulerim;
Plup. tulissem;

fer;

fertō;

fertō;

ferāmus. ferrēmus. tulerimus. tulissēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. Fut. ferte. fertōte.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

feruntō.

Pres. ferre.

Pres. ferens.

Perf. tulisse.

Fut. lātūrus esse.

Fut. lātūrus.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. ferendī.

Dat. ferendō.

Acc. ferendum.

Abl. ferendō.

Acc. lātum.

¹ It will be observed that not all the forms of **ferō** lack the connecting vowel. Some of them, as **ferimus**, **ferunt**, follow the regular inflection of verbs of the Third Conjugation.

Passive Voice.

feror,

ferrī,

lātus sum,

to be borne.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

Pres. feror, ferris, fertur;

ferimur, feriminī, feruntur.

Imp. ferēbar;

ferēbāmur. ferēmur.

Fut. ferar;
Perf. lātus sum;

lātī sumus.

Plup. lātus eram;

lātī erāmus.

Fut. P. lātus erō;

lātī erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. ferar;

ferāmur.

Imp. ferrer;

ferrēmur.

Perf. lātus sim;
Plup. lātus essem;

lātī sīmus. lātī essēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ferre;

feriminī.

Fut. fertor;

feruntor.

INFINITIVE.

fertor;

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ferrī.

Perf. lātus esse. Fut. lātum īrī.

Perf. lātus.
Ger. ferendus.

So also the Compounds —

afferō	afferre	attulī	a llātus	bring toward
auferō	auferre	abstulī	ablātus	take away
cōnferō	conferre	contulī	collātus	compare
differō	differre	distulī	dīlātus	put off
efferō	efferre	extulī	ēlātus	carry off
īnferō	īnferre	intulī	illātus	bring against
offerō	offerre	obtulī	oblātus	present
referō	referre	rettulī	relātus	bring back

Note. — The forms sustulī and sublātus belong to tollō.

130.

Volō, nōlō, mālō.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

∀olō,	velle,	voluĭ,	to be willing.
nõlõ,	nõlle,	nõluī,	to be unwilling.
mālō,	mālle,	māluī,	to prefer.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres.	volō,	nōlō,	mālō,
	vīs,	non vīs,	māvīs,
	vult ;	non vult;	māvult;
	volumus,	nōlumus,	mālumu s,
	vultis,	nõn vultis,	māvultis,
	volunt.	nõlunt.	mālunt.
Imp.	volēbam.	nōlēbam.	mālēb am
Fut.	volam.	nōlam.	mālam.
Perf.	voluī.	nōluī.	māluī.
Plup.	volueram.	nõlueram.	mālueram
Fut. F	. voluerō.	nōluerō.	māluerō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.	velim, -īs, -it, etc.	nõlim.	mālim.
Imp.	vellem, -ēs, -et, etc.	nöllem.	māllem.
Perf.	voluerim.	nõluerim.	māluerim.
Plub.	voluissem.	nõluissem.	māluissem.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. nölī, nölīte.
Fut. nölītō, nölītōte,
nölītō; nöluntō.

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	velle.	nõlle.	mālle.
Perf.	voluisse.	nõluisse.	māluisse.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. volēns. nolēns.

131.

Fīō.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

fio. fieri, factus sum, to become, be made.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. fio, fis, fit; fimus, fitis, fiunt.

 Imp.
 fīēbām;
 fīēbāmus.

 Fut.
 fīām;
 fīēmus.

 Perf.
 factus sum:
 factī sumus.

 Perf.
 factus sum;
 factī sumus.

 Plup.
 factus eram;
 factī erāmus.

 Fut. P. factus erō;
 factī erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fīam; fīāmus.

Imp. fierem; fierēmus.

Perf. factus sim; factī sīmus.

Plup. factus essem; factī essēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. fī; fīte.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. fieri.

Perf. factus esse. Perf. factus.
Fut. factum īrī. Ger. faciendus.

Note. — A few isolated forms of compounds of flo occur; as, defit, lacks; Infit, begins.

132.

Eō.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

eō, Ire, Ivī, itum (est), to go.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. eō, īs, it; īmus, ītis, eunt. Imp. ībam; ībāmus.

Fut. ībō; ībimus.

Perf. īvī (iī); īvimus (iimus).

Plup. īveram (ieram); īverāmus (ierāmus).
Fut. P. īverō (ierō); īverimus (ierimus).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. eam; eāmus. Imp. irem; irēmus.

Perf. iverim (ierim); iverimus (ierimus).

Plup. īvissem (iissem, īssem); īvissēmus (iissēmus, īssēmus).

IMPERATIVE.

 Pres.
 1;
 ite.

 Fut.
 ītō;
 ītōte,

 itō;
 euntō.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ire. Pres. iēns.

Perf. ivisse (isse) (Gen. euntis.)

Fut. itūrus esse. Fut. itūrus.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

eundī, etc. itum, itū.

Transitive compounds of eδ admit the full Passive inflection;
 as, adeor, adīris, adītur, etc.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective Verbs lack certain forms. The following are the most important:—

133. Used mainly in the Perfect System.

Coepī, I have begun. Meminī, I remember. Ödī, I hate.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Perf.coepī.meminī.ōdī.Plup.coeperam.memineram.ōderam.Fut. P.coeperō.meminerō.ōderō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perf.coeperim.meminerim.öderim.Plup.coepissem.meminissem.ödissem.

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. mementő; Plur. mementőte.

INFINITIVE.

Perf. coepisse.

meminisse.

ōdisse.

Fut. coeptūrus esse.

ōsūrus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

Perf. coeptus, begun. Fut. coeptūrus.

ōsus. ōsūrus.

- 1. When coepi governs a Passive Infinitive it usually takes the form coeptus est; as, amārī coeptus est, he began to be loved.
- 2. Note that meminī and ōdī, though Perfect in form, are Present in sense. Similarly the Pluperfect and Future Perfect have the force of the Imperfect and Future; as, memineram, I remembered; ōderō, I shall hate.
 - **134**. **Inquam**, *I say* (inserted between words of a direct quotation).

INDICATIVE MOOD.

135.

Ājō, I say.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

 SINGULAR.
 PLURAL.

 Pres.
 ājō,
 ——

 ais,
 ——
 ājunt.

 Imp.
 ājēbam,
 ājēbāmus,

 ājēbāts,
 ājēbātis,
 ājēbant.

Perf. 3d Sing. ait.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. 3d Sing. ajat.

NOTE. - For aisne, do you mean? ain is common.

136.

Färi, to speak.

This is inflected regularly in the perfect tenses. In the Presept System it has—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

:	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Pres.		
		
	fātur.	
Fut.	fābor,	
	fābitur.	
Imp.	fāre.	
Inf.	fārī.	•
Pres. Partic.	fantis, fantī,	etc.
Gerund, G.,	fand \bar{i} ; D. a	nd Abl., fandō
Gerundine	fandus	·

NOTE. — Forms of fari are rare. More frequent are its compounds; as,—
affatur, he addresses; praefamur, we say in advance.

137. OTHER DEFECTIVE FORMS.

- I. Queō, quīre, quīvī, to be able, and nequeō, nequīre, nequīvī, to be unable, are inflected like eō, but occur chiefly in the Present Tense, and there only in special forms.
 - 2. Quaeso, I entreat; quaesumus, we entreat.
 - 3. Cedo, cette; give me, tell me.
 - 4. Salvē, salvēte, hail. Also Infinitive, salvēre.
 - 5. Havē (avē), havēte, hail. Also Infinitive, havēre.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

- 138. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English, it snows, it seems, etc. They have no personal subject, but may take an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Neuter Pronoun; as, me pudet hoc fecisse, lit. it shames me to have done this; hoc decet, this is fitting. Here belong—
 - I. Verbs denoting operations of the weather; as,—

fulget	fulsit	it lightens
tonat	tonuit	it thunders

grandinat		it hails
ningit	ninxit	it snows
pluit	pluit	it rains

II. Special Verbs.

paenitet	p aenitēre	paenituit	it repents
piget	pigēre	piguit	it grieves
pudet	pudēre	puduit	it causes shame
taedet	taedēre	taeduit	it disgusts
miseret	miserēre	miseruit	it causes pity
libet	libēre	· libuit	it pleases
licet	licēre	licuit	it is lawful
oportet	oportēre	oportuit	it is fitting
decet	decēre	decuit	it is becoming
dēdecet	dēdecēre	dēdecuit	it is unbecoming
rēfert	rēferre	rētulit	it concerns

III. Verbs Impersonal only in Special Senses.

cõnstat	cōnstāre	cōnstitit	it is evident
praestat	praestāre	praestitit	it is better
juvat	juvāre	jūvit	it delights
appāret	appārēre	appāruit	it appears
placet	placēre	placuit (placitum est)	it pleases
accēdit	accēdere	accessit	it is added
accidit	accidere	accidit	it happens
contingit	contingere	contigit	it happens
ēvenit	ēvenīre	ēvēnit	it turns out
interest	interesse	interfuit	it concerns

IV. The Passive of Intransitive Verbs; as, -

ītur	lit. <i>it is gone</i>	i.e. some one goes
curritur	lit. it is run	i.e. some one runs
ventum est	lit. it has been come	i.e. some one has come
veniendum est	lit. it must be come	i.e. somebody must come
pügnārī potest	lit. it can be fought	i.e. somebody can fight

PART III.

PARTICLES.

139. Particles are the four Parts of Speech that do not admit of inflection; viz. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections.

ADVERBS.

140. Most adverbs are in origin case-forms which have become stereotyped by usage. The common adverbial terminations have already been given above (§ 76). The following TABLE OF CORRELATIVES is important:—

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	Indefinite.
ubi, where; where?	•	alicubī, ūsquam, ūs-
	ibi, illīc, istīc, there.	piam, somewhere.
quo, whither; whither?	hūc, hither.	aliquo, to some place.
	eō, istūc, illūc, thither.	
unde, whence; whence?	hinc, hence.	alicunde, from some-
• i	inde, istinc, illinc, thence.	where.
qua, where; where?	hāc, by this way.	aliquā, by some way.
	eā, istāc, illāc, by that way.	
cum, when.	nunc, now.	aliquandō, umquam,
quandō, when?	tum, tunc, then.	sometime.
quotiens, as often as; how often?	totiēns, so often.	aliquotiens, some number of times.
quam, as much as; how	tam, so much.	

much?

PREPOSITIONS.

141. The following Prepositions govern the Accusative:—

ad	ergā	praeter
adversus (adversum	ı) extrā	prope
ante	īnfrā	propter
apud	inter	secundum
circã	intrā	subter
circiter	jūxtā	super
circum	ob	suprā
cis	penes	trāns
citrā	per	ultrā
contrā	pōne	versus
	post	
	-	

- I. Usque is often prefixed to ad, in the sense of even; as,—
 usque ad urbem, even to the city.
- 2. Versus always follows its case; as,—

Rōmam versus, toward Rome.

It may be combined with a preceding Preposition; as,—ad urbem versus, toward the city.

- 3. Like prope, the Comparatives propior, propius, and the Superlatives proximus, proxime, sometimes govern the Accusative; as,—
 Ubil proxime Rhenum incolunt, the Ubil dwell next to the Rhine;
 propius castra hostium, nearer the camp of the enemy.
 - 142. The following Prepositions govern the Ablative:—

ā, ab, abs	đē	sine
absque	ē, ex	tenus
cōram	prae	
cum	prő	

- 1. $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$, \mathbf{ab} , \mathbf{abs} . Before vowels or \mathbf{h} , \mathbf{ab} must be used; before consonants we find sometimes $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$, sometimes \mathbf{ab} (the latter not before the labials \mathbf{b} , \mathbf{p} , \mathbf{f} , \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{m} ; nor before \mathbf{c} , \mathbf{g} , \mathbf{q} , or \mathbf{t}); \mathbf{abs} occurs only before $\mathbf{t\bar{e}}$, and $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ is admissible even there.
- 2. **Ē**, ex. Before vowels or h, ex must be used; before consonants, we find sometimes **ē**, sometimes **ex**.

- 3. Tenus regularly follows its case, as pectoribus tenus, up to the breast. It sometimes governs the Genitive, as labrorum tenus, as far as the lips.
- 4. Cum is appended to the Pronoun of the First and Second Persons, and to the Reflexive Pronoun; usually also to the Relative and Interrogative. Thus:—

mēcum sēcum

tēcum quōcum or cum quō
nōbīscum quācum or cum quā
vōbīscum quibuscum or cum quibus

On quicum, see § 89, Footnote 1.

143. Two Prepositions, in and sub, govern both the Accusative and the Ablative. With the Accusative they denote motion; with the Ablative, rest; as,—

in urbem, into the city; in urbe, in the city.

- 1. Subter and super are also occasionally construed with the Ablative.
 - 144. RELATION OF ADVERBS AND PREPOSITIONS.
- 1. Prepositions were originally Adverbs, and many of them still retain their adverbial meaning; as, post, afterwards; ante, previously; contrā, on the other hand, etc.
- 2. Conversely several words, usually adverbs, are occasionally employed as prepositions; as,—

clam, prīdiē, with the Accusative. procul, simul, palam, with the Ablative.

3. Anastrophe. A dissyllabic preposition sometimes follows a relative pronoun which it governs; as,—

if, quos inter erat, those among whom he was.

INTERJECTIONS.

- 145. Interjections are Particles expressing emotion. They may express
 - I. Surprise; as, ēn, ecce, ō.
 - Joy; as, iö, euoe.
 - 3. Sorrow and Pain; as, heu, ēheu, vae, prō.
 - 4. Calling; as, heus, eho.

PART IV.

WORD-FORMATION.

I. DERIVATIVES.

146. Derivatives are formed by appending certain terminations called Suffixes to stems of verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

A. NOUNS.

1. Nouns derived from Verbs.

147. I. The suffix -tor (-sor), Fem. -trīx, denotes the agent; as,—victor, victrīx, victor; dēfēnsor, defender.

NOTE. — The suffix -tor is occasionally appended to noun stems; as, — gladiator, gladiator (from gladius).

2. The suffix -or (originally -os) denotes an activity or a condition; as,—

amor, love; timor, fear; dolor, pain.

3. The suffixes -tiō (-siō), Gen. -ōnis, and -tus (-sus), Gen. -ūs, denote an action as in process; as,—

vēnātiō, hunting; obsessiō, blockade; gemitus, sighing; cursus, running.

NOTE. — Rarer endings with the same force are: —

- a) -tūra, -sūra; as,—
 sepultūra, burial; mēnsūra, measuring.
- b) -ium; as,—
 gaudium, rejoicing.
- c) -idō, as, cupidō, desire.

4. The suffixes -men, -mentum, -crum, -trum, -bulum, -culum. denote the means or place of an action: as, —

 lümen (lüc-s-men), light;
 vocābulum, word;

 örnāmentum, ornament;
 documentum, proof;

 sepulcrum, grave.
 arātrum, plough;

vehiculum, carriage.

When the root ends in c, the c of the suffix disappears; as,—
jaculum for jac-culum (from jacio).

2. Nouns derived from Nouns.

148. I. Diminutives end in —

```
-ulus, (-ula, -ulum)
-olus, (-ola, -olum), after a vowel
-culus, (-oula, -culum)
-ellus, (-ella, -ellum)
-illus, (-illa, -illum)
```

as, ---

nīđulus,	little nest	(nīdus);
virgula,	wand	(virga);
oppidulum,	little town	(oppidum);
filiolus,	little son	(fīlius);
opusculum,	little work	(opus);
tabella,	tablet	(tabula);
lapillus,	pebble	(lapis).

NOTE 1.—It will be observed that in gender the Diminutives follow the gender of the words from which they are derived.

NOTE 2.—The endings-ellus, -illus contain the primitive form of the diminutive suffix, viz., -lo-. Thus:—

```
agellus, field, for ager-lus; lapillus, pebble, for lapid-lus.
```

2. The suffix -ium appended to nouns denoting persons designates either a collection of such persons or their function; as,—

```
collegium, a corporation, body of colleagues (collega); sacerdōtium, priestly function (sacerdōs).
```

3. The suffixes -arium, -atum, -Ile designate a place where objects are kept or are found in abundance; as, -

```
columbārium, dove-cote (columba);
olīvētum, olive-orchard (olīva);
ovīle, sheep-fold (ovis).
```

- The suffix -ātus denotes official position or honor; as, consulātus, consulship (consul).
- 5. The suffix -Ina appended to nouns denoting persons designates a vocation or the place where it is carried on; as,—

doctrīna, teaching (doctor, teacher); medicīna, the art of healing (medicūs, physician); sūtrīna, cobbler's shop (sūtor, cobbler).

- 6. Patronymics are Greek proper names denoting son of . . . daughter of . . . They have the following suffixes:
 - a) Masculines: -idēs, -adēs, -īdēs; as, Priamidēs, son of Priam; Aeneadēs, son of Aeneas; Pēlīdēs, son of Peleus.
 - b) Feminines: -ōis, -is, -ias; as, Nērōis, daughter of Nereus; Atlantis, daughter of Atlas; Thaumantias, daughter of Thaumas.

3. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

149. The suffixes -tās (-itās), -tūdō (-itūdō), -ia, -itia are used for the formation of abstract nouns denoting qualities; as,—

bonitās, goodness; celeritās, swiftness; māgnitūdō, greatness; audācia, boldness; amīcitia, friendship.

B. ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives derived from Verbs.

150. r. The suffixes -bundus and -cundus give nearly the force of a present participle; as,—

tremebundus, trembling;

īrācundus, wrathful.

2. The suffixes -ax and -ulus denote an inclination or tendency, mostly a faulty one; as,—

loquāx, loquacious;

crēdulus, credulous.

- The suffix -idus denotes a state; as,—
 calidus, hot; timidus, timid; cupidus, eager.
- 4. The suffixes -ilis and -bilis denote capacity or ability, usually in a passive sense; as, —

fragilis, fragile (i.e. capable of being broken); docilis, docile.

2. Adjectives derived from Nouns.

- a) From Common Nouns.
- 151. I. The suffixes -eus and -inus are appended to names of substances or materials; as, -

aureus, of gold; ferreus, of iron; fāginus, of beech.

2. The suffixes -ius, -icus, -Ilis, -ālis, -āris, -ārius, -nus, -ānus, -Inus, -Ivus, -Ensis signify belonging to, connected with; as, -

ōrātōrius, oratorical; bellicus, pertaining to war; cīvīlis, civil; rēgālis, regal; consularis, consular;

legionārius, legionary; paternus, paternal; urbānus, of the city; marinus, marine; aestīvus, pertaining to summer;

circensis, belonging to the circus.

3. The suffixes -osus and -lentus denote fullness; as, periculosus, full of danger, gloriosus, glorious; opulentus, wealthy. dangerous;

4. The suffix -tus has the force of provided with; as, barbātus, bearded; stellātus, set with stars.

- b) From Proper Names.
- 152. 1. Names of persons take the suffixes: -anus, -ianus, -īnus; as, --

Catonianus, belonging to Cato; Plautinus, belonging to Plautus.

- 2. Names of nations take the suffixes -icus, -ius; as, -Germānicus, German; Thrācius, Thracian.
- 3. Names of places take the suffixes -anus, -Inus, -ensis, -aeus, -ius; as, ---

Romanus, Roman; Amerīnus, of Ameria; Athēniensis, Athenian; Smyrnaeus, of Smyrna;

Corinthius, Corinthian.

Note. — -anus and -ensis, appended to names of countries, designate something stationed in the country or connected with it, but not indigenous; as, ---

bellum Āfricānum, a war (of Romans with Romans) in Africa. bellum Hispāniense, a war carried on in Spain. legiones Gallicanae, (Roman) legions stationed in Gaul.

- 3. Adjectives derived from Adjectives.
- 153. Diminutives in -lus sometimes occur; as, -

parvolus, little; misellus passer, poor little sparrow; pauperculus, needy.

4. Adjectives derived from Adverbs.

154. These end in -ernus, -ternus, -tīnus, -tīnus; as, -

hodiernus,	of to-day	(hodiē);
hesternus,	of yesterday	(herī);
intestīnus,	internal	(intus);
diūtinus,	long-lasting	(điũ).

C. VERBS.

1. Verbs derived from Verbs.

155. I. INCEPTIVES OR INCHOATIVES. These end in -sco, and are formed from Present Stems. They denote the beginning of an action; as, —

```
labāscō.
                 begin to totter
                                    (from labo);
                 grow rough
horrēsco.
                                    (from horreo);
tremēsco.
                 begin to tremble
                                    (from tremo);
obdormisco.
                 fall asleeb
                                    (from dormio).
```

2. Frequentatives or Intensives. These denote a repeated or energetic action. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -to or -so. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -itō (not -ātō, as we should expect). Examples of Frequentatives are -

```
toss about, brandish
                                       (from jacio, hurl);
jactō,
            run hither and thither
                                       (from curro, run);
cursō.
           flit about
                                       (from volo, fly).
volitō.
```

a. Some double Frequentatives occur; as, -

```
cantito,
                sing over and over
                                         (cantō):
cursitō,
                keep running about
                                         (curso);
ventitō,
                keep coming.
```

b. agito, set in motion, is formed from the Present Stem.

3. DESIDERATIVES. These denote a desire to do something. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -ariō; as, —

ēsuriō, desire to eat, am hungry (edō); parturiō, want to bring forth, am in labor (pariō).

2. Verbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives (Denominatives).

- 156. Denominatives of the First Conjugation are mostly transitive, those of the Second exclusively intransitive. Those of the Third and Fourth Conjugations are partly transitive, partly intransitive. Examples are
 - a) From Nouns:—

fraudō, defraud (fraus); vestiō, clothe (vestis); flōreō, bloom (flōs).

b) From Adjectives: -

līberō, free (līber); saeviō, be fierce (saevus).

D. ADVERBS.

157. I. Adverbs derived from verbs are formed from the Participial Stem by means of the suffix -im; as,—

certātim, emulously (certō); cursim, in haste (currō); statim immediately (stō).

- 2. Adverbs derived from nouns and adjectives are formed:
 - a) With the suffixes -tim (-sim), -ātim; as,—
 gradātim, step by step;

paulātim, gradually; virītim, man by man.

b) With the suffix -tus; as,—

antiquitus, of old; rādīcitus, from the roots.

c) With the suffix -ter; as, breviter, briefly.

II. COMPOUNDS.

- 158. I. Compounds are formed by the union of simple words. The second member usually contains the *essential meaning* of the compound; the first member expresses some modification of this.
- 2. Vowel changes often occur in the process of composition. Thus:
 - a. In the second member of compounds. (See § 7. 1.)
 - b. The final vowel of the stem of the first member of the compound often appears as I where we should expect ŏ or ă; sometimes it is dropped altogether, and in case of consonant stems I is often inserted; as,—

signifer, standard-bearer; tubicen, trumpeter; māgnanimus, high-minded; mātricīda, matricide.

159. Examples of Compounds.

- I. Nouns:
 - a) Preposition + Noun; as, —

 dē-decus, disgrace;

 pro-avus, great-grandfather.
 - b) Noun + Verb Stem; as, —
 agri-cola, farmer;
 frātri-cīda, fratricide.
- 2. Adjectives:
 - a) Preposition + Adjective (or Noun); as,—
 per-māgnus, very great;
 sub-obscūrus, rather obscure;
 ä-mēns, frantic.
 - b) Adjective + Noun; as, —
 māgn-animus, great-hearted;
 miseri-cors, compassionate.
 - c) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—
 parti-ceps, sharing;
 morti-fer, death-dealing.

3. Verbs: -

The second member is always a verb. The first may be -

- a) A Noun; as,—
 aedi-ficō, build.
- b) An Adjective; as,—
 ampli-fico, enlarge.
- c) An Adverb; as,—
 male-dīcō, rail at.
- d) Another Verb; as,—
 cale-faciō, make warm.
- e) A Preposition; as,—

 ab-jungō, detach;

 re-ferō, bring back;

 dis-cernō, distinguish;

 ex-spectō, await.

Note. — Here belong the so-called Inseparable Prepositions: —

ambi- (amb-), around;

dis- (dir-, dI-), apart, asunder;

por- forward;

red- (re-), back;

sed- (se-), apart from;

ve-, without.

4. Adverbs: -

These are of various types; as, -

anteā, before; Ilicō (in locō), on the spot; imprīmīs, especially; obviam, in the way.

PART V.

SYNTAX.

160. Syntax treats of the use of words in sentences.

CHAPTER I. — Sentences.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

- 161. Sentences may be classified as follows:—
- DECLARATIVE, which state something; as, —
 puer scribit, the boy is writing.
- 2. Interrogative, which ask a question; as, quid puer scribit, what is the boy writing?
- 3. EXCLAMATORY, which are in the form of an exclamation; as,—quot libros scrībit, how many books he writes!
- 4. IMPERATIVE, which express a command or an admonition; as,—sorTbe, write!

FORM OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

- 162. Questions may be either Word-Questions or Sentence-Questions.
- I. Word-Questions. These are introduced by the various interrogative pronouns and adverbs; such as quis, quī, quālis, quantus, quot, quotiēns, quō, quā, etc. Thus:—

quis venit, who comes?
quam diff manebit, how long will he stay?

- 2. Sentence-Questions. These are introduced
 - a) By nonne implying the answer 'yes'; as,—
 nonne vidēs, do you not see?
 - b) By num implying the answer 'no'; as,—
 num expectās, do you expect? (i.e. you don't expect, do you?)
 - c) By the enclitic -ne, appended to the emphatic word, and simply asking for information; as, vidēsne, do you see?

A question introduced by -ne may receive a special implication from the context; as,—

sēnsistīne, did you not perceive?

- d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of surprise or indignation; as,
 - tu in judicum conspectum venire audes, do you dare to come into the presence of the judges?
- 3. RHETORICAL QUESTIONS. Questions are sometimes such merely in form, being employed to express an emphatic assertion; as, quis dubitat, who doubts? (= no one doubts).
- 4. DOUBLE QUESTIONS. Double Questions are introduced by the following particles:—

utrum . . . an;
-ne an;

If the second member is negative, annon (less often necne) is used. Examples:—

utrum honestum est an turpe, honestumne est an turpe, honestum est an turpe, suntne di annon, are there gods or not?

- a. By an ellipsis of the first member, an sometimes stands alone.
 Its force depends upon the context; as,—
 - Ā rēbus gerendīs abstrahit senectūs. Quibus? An els quae juventūte geruntur et vīribus? Old age (it is alleged) withdraws men from active pursuits. From what pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are performed by the strength of youth?

5. Answers.

- a. The answer YES is expressed by ita, etiam, vērō, sānē, or by repetition of the verb; as,—
 - 'vīsne locum mūtēmus?' 'sānē.' 'Shall we change the place?' 'Certainly.'
 - 'estisne vos legati?' 'sumus.' 'Are you envoys?' 'Yes.'
- b. The answer No is expressed by non, minime, minime vero, or by repeating the verb with a negative; as,—
 - 'jam ea praeteriit?' 'non.' 'Has it passed?' 'No.'
 'estne frater intus?' 'non est.' 'Is your brother within?'
 'No.'

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

163. The two essential parts of a sentence are the Subject and Predicate.

The Subject is that concerning which something is said, asked, etc. The Predicate is that which is said, asked, etc., concerning the Subject.

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

- 164. Sentences containing but one Subject and one Predicate are called SIMPLE SENTENCES, those containing more are called COMPOUND SENTENCES. Thus puer libros legit, the boy reads books, is a Simple Sentence; but puer libros legit et epistulas scribit, the boy reads books and writes letters, is a Compound Sentence. The different members of a compound Sentence are called CLAUSES.
- 165. COÖRDINATE AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES. Clauses which stand upon an equality are called COÖRDINATE; a Clause dependent upon another is called SUBORDINATE. Thus in puer libros legit et epistulās scrībit the two clauses are Coördinate; but in puer libros legit quos pater scrībit, the boy reads the books which his father writes, the second clause is Subordinate to the first.

CHAPTER II. - Syntax of, Nouns.

SUBJECT.

- 166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (i.e. any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.
 - 1. The Subject may be --
 - a) A Noun or Pronoun; as, —
 puer scrībit, the boy writes;
 hīc scrībit, this man writes.
 - b) An Infinitive; as, —
 decorum est pro patria mori, to die for one's country is a noble thing.
 - c) A Clause; as, opportunē accidit quod vēnistī, it happened opportunely that you arrived.
- 2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb, and is not separately expressed; as,—

scrībō, I write;

·widet, he sees.

- a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed; as,
 - ego scrībō et tū legis, I write, and you read.
- 3. The verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context, especially the auxiliary sum; as,—
- rēctē ille (sc. facit), he does rightly; consul profectus (sc. est), the consul set out.

PREDICATE NOUNS.

- 167. A PREDICATE Noun is one connected with the Subject by some form of the verb **Sum** or a similar verb.
- 168. A Predicate Noun agrees with its Subject in Case; 1 as, —

¹ For the Predicate Genitive see §§ 198, 3; 203, 5.

Cicero orator fuit, Cicero was an orator; Numa creatus est rex, Numa was elected king.

1. When possible the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as,—

philosophia est vītae magistra, philosophy is the guide of life.

- 2. Besides sum the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are
 - a) fīō, ēvādō, existō; maneō; videor; as, —
 Croesus nōn semper mānsit rēx, Croesus did not always remain king.
 - b) Passive verbs of making, calling, regarding, etc.; as, creor, appellor, habeor; as,—
 Rōmulus rēx appellātus est, Romulus was called king; habitus est deus, he was regarded as a god.

APPOSITIVES.

169. 1. An Appositive is a Noun explaining or defining another Noun denoting the same person or thing; as,—

Cicero consul, Cicero, the Consul; urbs Roma, the city Rome.

- An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case; as,—
 opera Ciceronis orātoris, the works of Cicero, the orator;
 apud Hērodotum, patrem historiae, in the works of Herodotus, the
 father of history.
- 3. When possible the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as, —

assentātiō adjūtrīx vitiōrum, flattery, the promoter of evils.

- 4. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of urbs or oppidum, with or without a preposition; as,—
- Corinthī, urbe praeclārā, or in urbe praeclārā, at Corinth, a famous city.
- 5. Partitive Apposition. A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part; as,—
- mulites, fortissimus quisque, hostibus restiterunt, the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the enemy.

THE CASES.

THE NOMINATIVE.

170. The Nominative is confined to its use as Subject, Appositive, or Predicate Noun, as already explained. See §§ 166–169.

THE VOCATIVE.

- 171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as,—orēdite mihi, jūdicēs, believe me, judges.
- I. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, audī tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people!
- 2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, nate, mea magna potentia solus, O son, alone the source of my great power.

THE ACCUSATIVE.

- 172. The Accusative is the Case of the Direct Object.
- 173. The Direct Object may express either of the two following relations:—
 - A. The Person or Thing Affected by the action; as,—
 consulem interfecit, he slew the consul;
 lego librum, I read the book.
 - B. The RESULT PRODUCED by the action; as,—
 librum scrīpsī, I wrote a book (i.e. produced one);
 templum struit, he constructs a temple.
- 174. Verbs that admit a Direct Object of either of these two types are Transitive Verbs.
 - a. Verbs that regularly take a Direct Object are sometimes used without it. They are then said to be employed absolutely;
 as,
 - rumor est meum gnātum amāre, it is rumored that my son is in love.

Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.

175. I. This is the most frequent use of the Accusative; as in—

parentes amamus, we love our parents; mare aspicit, he gazes at the sea.

- 2. The following classes of Verbs taking an Accusative of this kind are worthy of note:
 - a) Many Intransitive Verbs, when compounded with a Preposition, become Transitive. Thus:—
 - I) Compounds of circum, praeter, trāns; as,—hostēs circumstāre, to surround the enemy; urbem praeterīre, to pass by the city; mūrōs trānscendere, to climb over the walls.
 - 2) Less frequently, compounds of ad, per, in, sub; as,—adīre urbem, to visit the city; peragrāre Italiam, to travel through Italy; inīre magistrātum, to take office; subīre perīculum, to undergo danger.
 - b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use; as, queror fātum, I lament my fate; doleō ējus mortem, I grieve at his death; rīdeō tuam stultitiam, I laugh at your folly. So also lūgeō, maereō, mourn; gemō, bemoan; horreō, shudder, and others.
 - c) The impersonals decet, it becomes; dedecet, it is unbecoming; juvat, it pleases, take the Accusative of the Person Affected; as,—
 mē decet haec dicere, it becomes me to sav this.
 - d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles (§ 256, 1; 2), and take the Accusative as Object; as,—

galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet;
cīnctus tempora hederā, having bound his temples with
ivy;

nodo sinus collecta, having gathered her dress in a knot.

Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. 1. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as—

librum scrībō, / write a book; domum aedificō, / build a house.

- 2. Many Verbs usually Intransitive take a Neuter Pronoun, or Adjective used as an Accusative of Result. Thus:
 - a) A Neuter Pronoun; as, —

haec gemēbat, he made these moans; illud glorior, I make this boast; eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes.

b) A Neuter Adjective, — particularly Adjectives of number or amount, — multum, multa, omnia, pauca, etc.; as, —

multa dubitō, I have many doubts; pauca studet, he has few interests; multum valet, he has great strength; nihil progreditur, he makes no progress.

NOTE. — In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction; as,—
minitantem vāna, making vain threats;
acerba tuāns, giving a fierce look;
dulce loquentem, sweetly talking.

3. The adverbial use of several Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives grows out of this Accusative; as,—

multum sunt in vēnātione, they are much engaged in hunting.

- a. So also plurimum, very greatly; plerumque, generally; aliquid, somewhat; quid, why? nihil, not at all; etc.
- 4. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a Cognate Accusative, and is usually modified by an Adjective; as,—
 sempiternam servitūtem serviat, let him serve an everlasting slavery; vītam dūram vīxī, I have lived a hard life.
 - Sometimes the Cognate Accusative is not of kindred etymology, but merely of kindred meaning; as,—

stadium currit, he runs a race; Olympia vincit, he wins an Olympic victory. 5. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of tasting and smelling; as,—

piscis mare sapit, the fish tastes of the sea; örātiönēs antīquitātem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.

Two Accusatives - Direct Object and Predicate Accusative.

177. I. Many Verbs of *Making*, Choosing, Calling, Showing, and the like, take two Accusatives, one of the Person or Thing Affected, the other a Predicate Accusative; as,—

mē hērēdem fēcit, he made me heir.

Here mē is Direct Object, hērēdem Predicate Accusative. So also —

eum jüdicem cēpēre, they took him as judge; urbem Rōmam vocāvit, he called the city Rome; sē virum praestitit, he showed himself a man.

2. The Predicate Accusative may be an Adjective as well as a Noun; as,—

hominēs caecos reddit cupiditās, covetousness renders men blind; Apollo Socratem sapientissimum jūdicāvit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.

- a. Some Verbs, as reddō, usually admit only an Adjective as the Predicate Accusative.
- 3. In the Passive the Direct Object becomes the Subject, and the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative; as,—

urbs Roma vocāta est, the city was called Rome.

 a. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; reddo and efficio, for example, never take it.

Two Accusatives - Person and Thing.

- 178. I. Some Verbs take two Accusatives, one of the Person Affected, the other of the Result Produced. Thus:—
 - a) Verbs of requesting and demanding, as,—
 ōtium dīvōs rogat, he asks the gods for rest;
 mē duās ōrātiōnēs postulās, you demand two speeches of me.

So also oro, posco, reposco, exposco, flagito, though some of these prefer the Ablative with ab to the Accusative of the Person; as,—

opem ā tē poscō, I demand aid of you.

- b) Verbs of teaching (doceo and its compounds); as, tē litterās doceo, I teach you your letters.
- c) Verbs of inquiring; as,—

 tā haec rogō, I ask you this;

 tē sententiam rogō, I ask you your opinion.
- d) Several Special Verbs; viz. moneō, admoneō, commoneō, coōgō, acoūsō, arguō, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as,—

të haec moneo, I give you this advice; më id accusais, you bring this accusation against me. id cogit nos natura, nature compels us (to) this.

- e) One Verb of concealing, celo; as, non te celavi sermonem, I have not concealed the conversation from you.
- 2. In the Passive construction the Accusative of the Person becomes the Subject, and the Accusative of the Thing is retained; as, omnēs artēs ēdoctus est, he was taught all accomplishments; rogātus sum sententiam, I was asked my opinion;
 - aliquid admonēmur, we are given some admonition.
 a. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

Two Accusatives with Compounds.

179. I. Transitive compounds of trans may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition; as,—

mīlitēs flumen trāducit, he leads his soldiers across the river.

- 2. With other compounds this construction is rare.
- 3. In the Passive the Accusative dependent upon the preposition is retained; as,—

mīlitēs flumen trāducēbantur, the soldiers were led across the river.

Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative.

180. I. The Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the *part* to which an action or quality refers; as,—

tremit artus, literally, he trembles as to his limbs, i.e. his limbs tremble; nuda genu, lit. bare as to the knee, i.e. with knee bare; manus revinctus, lit. tied as to the hands, i.e. with hands tied.

- 2. Note that this construction
 - a) Is borrowed from the Greek.
 - b) Is chiefly confined to poetry.
 - c) Usually refers to a part of the body.
 - d) Is used with Adjectives as well as Verbs.

Accusative of Time and Space.

181. I. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are denoted by the Accusative; as,—

quadrāgintā annōs vīxit, he lived forty years;

hīc locus passūs sescentōs aberat, this place was six hundred paces away.

arborēs quīnquāgintā pedēs altae, trees fifty feet high. abhinc trēs annēs, three years ago.

2. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the Preposition per; as, per duos annos laboravi, I toiled throughout two years.

Accusative of Limit of Motion.

- 182. I. The Accusative of Limit of Motion is used
 - a) With names of Towns, Small Islands, and Peninsulas; as,—
 Rōmam vēnī, I came to Rome;
 Athēnās proficīscitur, he sets out for Athens;
 Dēlum pervēnī, I arrived at Delos.
 - b) With domum, domos, rūs; as,—
 domum revertitur, he returns home;
 rūs ībō, I shall go to the country.

Note. — When domus means house (i.e. building), it takes a preposition; as, —

in domum veterem remigrare, to move back to an old house.

٠,

2. Other designations of place than those above mentioned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as,—

Ad Italiam vēnit, he came to Italy.

a. The Preposition is also customary when the Accusatives urbem or oppidum stand in apposition with the name of a town; as,—

Cirtam in urbem, to the city Cirta; Genēvam ad oppidum, to the town Geneva.

b. The name of a town denoting limit of motion may be combined with the name of a country or other word dependent upon a preposition; as,—

Thurios in Italiam pervectus, carried to Thurii in Italy; cum Acon ad exercitum vonisset, when he had come to the army at Ace.

- 3. To denote toward, to the vicinity of, in the vicinity of, ad is used; as,
 - ad Tarentum vēnī, I came to the vicinity of Tarentum; ad Cannās pūgna facta est, a battle was fought near Cannæ.
- 4. In poetry the Accusative of any noun denoting a place may be used without a preposition to express the limit of motion; as, —

Ītaliam vēnit, he came to Italy.

5. The goal notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase **infitiās ire**, to deny (lit. to go to a denial), and a few other similar expressions.

Accusative in Exclamations.

183. The Accusative, generally modified by an Adjective, is used in Exclamations; as, —

mē miserum ah, wretched me!

Ō fallācem spem, oh, deceptive hope!

Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.

184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative; as,—

video hominem abīre, I see that the man is going away.

Other Uses of the Accusative.

185. Here belong -

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositives; viz. -

id genus, of that kind; as, homines id genus, men of that kind (originally homines, id genus hominum, men, that kind of men);

virile secus, muliebre secus, of the male sex, of the female sex; meam vicem, tuam vicem, etc., for my part, etc.; bonam partem, in large part; māximam partem, for the most part.

2. Some phrases of doubtful origin; as,—

id temporis, at that time;

id aetātis, at that time;

quod sī, but if;

cētera, in other respects;

dextrum, on the right;

laevum, on the left.

THE DATIVE.

186. The Dative case in general expresses relations which are designated in English by the prepositions to and for.

Dative of Indirect Object.

- 187. The commonest use of the Dative is to denote the person to whom something is given, said, or done. Thus:—
- I. With transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative; as,—

hanc pecuniam mihi dat, he gives me this money; haec nobis dixit, he said this to us.

a. Some verbs which take this construction also admit another, particularly the verbs dono and circumdo. Thus:—

Either Themistoclī mūnera donāvit, he presented gifts to Themistocles, or

Themistoclem muneribus donavit, he presented Themistocles with gifts;

urbī mūrōs circumdat, he builds walls around the city, or urbem mūrīs circumdat, he surrounds the city with walls.

II. With many intransitive verbs; as, —

nüllī laborī cēdit, he yields to no labor; tibi suscēnseo, I am angry with you.

a. Here belong many verbs signifying favor, thelp, injure, please, displease, trust, distrust, command, obey, serve, resist, indulge, spare, pardon, envy, threaten, believe, persuade, and the like; as,—

Caesar popularibus favet, Caesar favors (i.e. is favorable to) the popular party;

amīcīs confido, I trust (to) my friends;

mīlitibus ignōscit, he pardons (i.e. grants pardon to) the troops;

Orgetorīx Helvētiīs persuāsit, Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helvetians;

bonis nocet qui malis parcit, he injures (does harm to) the good, who spares the bad.

NOTE. — It is to be borne in mind that these verbs do not take the Dative by virtue of their apparent English equivalence, but simply because they are intransitive, and adapted to an indirect object. Some verbs of the same apparent English equivalence are transitive and govern the Accusative; as, juvō, laedō, dēlectō. Thus: audentēs deus juvat, God helps the bold; nēminem laesit, he injured no one.

b. Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally; as,—

tibi paroitur, you are spared; mihi persuādētur, I am being persuaded; eī invidētur, he is envied.

III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions: ad, ante, com-,² in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super, and sometimes circum.

These verbs fall into two main classes, —

1. Many simple verbs which cannot take a Dative of the indirect object become capable of doing so when compounded with a preposition; as,—

afflictIs succurrit, he helps the afflicted; exercitui praefuit, he was in command of the army; intersum consiliis. I share in the deliberations.

¹ Many such verbs were originally intransitive in English also, and once governed the Dative.

² This was the original form of the preposition cum.

2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a Dative also as indirect object; as,—

pecuniae pudorem anteponit, he puts honor before money; inicere spem amucis, to inspire hope in one's friends;

Labienum exercitui praefecit, he put Labienus in charge of the army.

Dative of Reference.

- 188. I. The Dative of Reference denotes the person to whom a statement refers, of whom it is true, or to whom it is of interest; as,—
- mihi ante oculõs versāris, you hover before my eyes (lit. hover before the eyes to me);
- illī sevēritās amōrem non dēminuit, in his case severity did not diminish love (lit. to him severity did not diminish);
- intercludere hostibus commeatum, to cut off the supplies of the enemy.
 - a. Note the phrase alicui interdicere aqua et igni, to interdict one from fire and water.

NOTE. — The Dative of Reference, unlike the Dative of Indirect Object, does not modify the verb, but rather the sentence as a whole. It is often used where, according to the English idiom, we should expect a Genitive; so in the first and third of the above examples.

- 2. Special varieties of the Dative of Reference are
 - a) Dative of the Local Standpoint. This is regularly a participle; as,
 - oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpīrō, the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (lit. to those coming from E.).
 - b) Ethical Dative. This name is given to those Dative constructions of the personal pronouns in which the connection of the Dative with the rest of the sentence is of the very slightest sort; as,
 - tū mihi istīus audāciam dēfendis? tell me, do you defend that man's audacity?
 - quid mihi Celsus agit? what is my Celsus doing? quid sibi vult? what does he mean? (lit. wish for himself?)

- c) Dative of Person Judging; as,
 - erit ille mihi semper deus, he will always be a god to me (i.e. in my opinion);
 - quae ista servitūs tam clārō hominī, how can that be slavery to so illustrious a man (i.e. to his mind)!
- d) Dative of Separation. Compounds of ab, de, ex, ad which have the general sense of taking away govern a Dative of the person, less often of the thing; as,
 - honorem detraxerunt homini, they took away the honor from the man;
 - Caesar regi tetrarchiam eripuit, Caesar took the tetrarchy away from the king;
 - silicI scintillam excudit, he struck a spark from the flint.

Dative of Agency.

- 189. The Dative is used to denote agency —
- 1. Regularly with the Gerundive; as, -
- haec nobis agenda sunt, these things must be done by us; mihi eundum est, I must go (lit. it must be gone by me).
 - a. To avoid ambiguity, 8 with the Ablative is sometimes used with the Gerundive; as,
 - hostibus a nobis parcendum est, the enemy must be spared by us.
- 2. Much less frequently with the compound tenses of the passive voice and the perfect passive participle; as,—
- disputātio, quae mihi nūper habita est, the discussion which was recently conducted by me.
- 3. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as,—honesta bonis viris quaeruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.

Dative of Possession.

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb esse in such expressions as:—

mihi est liber, I have a book; mihi nomen est Mārcus, I have the name Marcus.

1. But with nomen est the name is more commonly attracted into the Dative; as, mihi nomen est Marco.

Dative of Purpose.

- 191. The Dative of Purpose designates the end toward which an action is directed or for which something exists. It is used—
- I. Unaccompanied by another Dative; as,—
 castrīs locum dēligere, to choose a place for a camp;
 legionēs praesidio relinquere, to leave the legions as a guard (lit. for a guard);
 receptuī canere, to sound the signal for a retreat.
- 2. Much more frequently in connection with another Dative of the person:
 - a) Especially with some form of esse; as,—
 fortūnae tuae mihi cūrae sunt, your fortunes are a care
 to me (lit. for a care);
 nōbīs sunt odiō, they are an object of hatred to us;
 cui bonō? to whom is it of advantage?
 - b) With other verbs; as,—
 hos tibi munerī mīsit, he has sent these to you for a present;
 - Pausaniās Atticīs vēnit auxiliō, Pausanias came to the aid of the Athenians (lit. to the Athenians for help).
- In connection with the Gerundive; as,—
 decemvirī lēgibus scrībundīs, decemvirs for codifying the laws.
 mē gerendō bellō ducem creāvēre, me they have made leader for carrying on the war.

NOTE. - This construction with the gerundive is not common till Livy.

Dative with Adjectives.

- 2 192. The use of the Dative with Adjectives corresponds very closely to its use with verbs. Thus:—
 - 1. Corresponding to the Dative of Indirect Object it occurs with adjectives signifying: friendly, unfriendly, similar, dissimilar, equal, near, related to, etc.; as,—

mihi inimīcus, hostile to me; sunt proximī Germānīs, they are next to the Germans; noxiae poena pār estō, let the penalty be equal to the damage.

- a. For propior and proximus, with the Accusative, see § 141, 3.
- 2. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: suitable, adapted, fit; as,—

castrīs idōneus locus, a place fit for a camp; apta diēs sacrificiō, a day suitable for a sacrifice.

NOTE. - Adjectives of this last class often take the Accusative with ad.

Dative of Direction.

193. In the poets the Dative is occasionally used to denote the direction of motion; as,—

it clāmor caelō, the shout goes heavenward; cinerēs rīvō fluentī jace, cast the ashes toward the flowing stream.

1. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the Dative to denote the *limit of motion*; as,—

dum Latio deos inferret, while he was bringing his gods to Latium.

THE GENITIVE.

194. The Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

195. With Nouns the Genitive is the case which defines the meaning of the limited noun more closely. This relation is generally indicated in English by the preposition of. There are the following varieties of the Genitive with Nouns:—

Genitive of Origin, Genitive of Material, Genitive of Possession, Subjective Genitive,

Objective Genitive, Genitive of the Whole, Appositional Genitive, Genitive of Quality.

196. Genitive of Origin; as, —
Märoī fīlius, the son of Marcus.

197. Genitive of Material; as, -

talentum aurī, a talent of gold; modius frümentī, a peck of grain.

198. Genitive of Possession or Ownership; as, — domus Cicerônis, Cicerô's house.

1. Here belongs the Genitive with causā and grātiā. The Genitive always precedes; as,—

hominum causā, for the sake of men; meorum amīcorum grātiā, for the sake of my friends.

- Instar (lit. image) also takes the Possessive Genitive; as,—
 equus Instar montis, a horse as large as a mountain.
- 3. The Possessive Genitive is often used predicatively, especially with esse and fier I; as, —

domus est rēgis, the house is the king's;

stultī est in errore manēre, it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error;

- de bello judicium imperatoris est, non militum, the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers.
- 199. Subjective Genitive. This denotes the person who makes or produces something or who has a feeling; as,—

dicta Platonis, the utterances of Plato; timores liberorum, the fears of the children.

200. Objective Genitive. This denotes the object of an action or feeling; as, —

metus deōrum, the fear of the gods; amor libertātis, love of liberty; cōnsuētūdō bonōrum hominum, intercourse with good men.

- This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions; as, amor ergā parentēs, love toward one's parents.
- **201.** Genitive of the Whole. This designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—
- 1. With Nouns, Pronouns, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Ordinal Numerals; as,—

māgna pars hominum, a great part of mankind; duo mīlia peditum, two thousand foot-soldiers; quis mortālium, who of mortals? mājor frātrum, the elder of the brothers; gēns māxima Germānōrum, the largest tribe of the Germans; prīmus omnium, the first of all.

- a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find ex or d5 with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and quidam; as,—fidölissimus dö servis, the most trusty of the slaves; quidam ex amicis, certain of his friends; thrus ex militibus, one of the soldiers.
- b. In English we often use of where there is no relation of whole to part. In such cases the Latin is more exact, and does not use the Genitive; as.—

quot võs estis, how many of you are there? trecenti conjūrāvimus, three hundred of us have conspired (i.e. we, three hundred in number).

2. The Genitive of the Whole is used also with the Nominative or Accusative Singular Neuter of Pronouns, or of Adjectives used substantively; also with the Adverbs parum, satis, and partim when used substantively; as,—

quid consili, what purpose? tantum cibi, so much food; plūs auctoritātis, more authority; minus laboris, less labor; satis pecūniae, enough money; parum industriae, too little industry.

- a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, nihil boni, nothing good.
- b. But Adjectives of the third declension agree directly with the noun they limit; as, nihil dulcius, nothing sweeter.
- 3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as,—

ubi terrarum? ubi gentium? where in the world?

- a. By an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependence upon pridië and postridië, but only in the phrases pridië ëjus diëi, on the day before that; postridië ëjus diëi, on the day after that.
- 202. Appositional Genitive. The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive; as,—

nomen regis, the name of king; poena mortis, the penalty of death; ars sorlbendi, the art of writing.

203. Genitive of Quality. The Genitive modified by an Adjective is used to denote quality. This construction presents several varieties. Thus it is used—

1. To denote some internal or permanent characteristic of a person or thing; as,—

vir māgnae virtūtis, a man of great virtue; rationēs ējus modī, considerations of that sort.

- a. Only a limited number of Adjectives occur in this construction, chiefly māgnus, māximus, summus, tantus, along with ējus.
- 2. To denote measure (breadth, length, etc.); as,—
 fossa quindecim pedum, a trench fifteen feet wide (or deep);
 exsilium decem annorum, an exile of ten years.
- 3. By omission of **preti** (*price*), or some kindred word, **tanti**, **quanti**, **parvi**, **māgnī**, **minōris**, **minimī**, **plūrimī**, **māximī** are used predicatively to denote *indefinite value*; as,—

nülla studia tantī sunt, no studies are of so much value; māgnī opera ējus exīstimāta est, his assistance was highly esteemed.

- a. Pluris (not strictly an adjective) follows the same analogy.
- 4. By an extension of the notion of value, quantī, tantī, plūris, and minōris are also used with verbs of buying and selling, to denote indefinite price; as,—

quanti aedēs ēmistī, at how high a price did you purchase the house?

5. Any of the above varieties of the Genitive of Quality may be used predicatively; as,—

tantae mõlis erat Rõmānam condere gentem, of so great difficulty was it to found the Roman race.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

- 204. The Genitive is used with many Adjectives to limit the extent of their application. Thus:—
- 1. With Adjectives signifying desire, knowledge, familiarity, memory, participation, power, fulness, and their opposites; as,—

studiōsus discendī, desirous of learning; perītus bellī, skilled in war; īnsuētus labōris, unused to toil; immemor mandātī tuī, unmindful of your commission; plēna perīculōrum est vīta, life is full of dangers.

a. Some participles used adjectively also take the Genitive; as,—
dliigēns vēritātis, fond of truth;
amāns patriae, devoted to one's country.

- Sometimes with proprius and commūnis; as,—
 virī propria est fortitūdō, bravery is characteristic of a man.
 memoria est commūnis omnium artium, memory is common to all
 professions.
 - a. proprius and communis are also construed with the Dative.
- 3. With **similis** the Genitive is the commoner construction in Cicero, when the reference is to living objects; as,—

filius patris simillimus est, the son is exactly like his father. meī similis, like me; vestrī similis, like you.

When the reference is to things, both Genitive and Dative occur; as, — mors somnō (or somnī) similis est, death is like sleep.

4. In the poets and later prose writers the use of the Genitive with Adjectives is extended far beyond earlier limits; as, atrox animi, fierce of temper; incortus consilii, undecided in purpose.

GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

205. The Genitive is used with the following classes of Verbs:—

Meminī, Reminīscor, Oblīvīscor.

- 206. I. WHEN REFERRING TO PERSONS
 - a. meminī takes the Genitive in the significations I bear in mind (memor sum), am mindful of, or make mention of; but the Accusative in the signification, I recall; as,—

vīvorum meminī, I am mindful of the living;

Achilles cūjus suprā meminimus, Achilles, of whom we made mention above;

Sullam memini, I recall Sulla.

- b. obliviscor regularly takes the Genitive; as,—
 Epicuri non licet oblivisci, we mustn't forget Epicurus.
- 2. When referring to Things, memini, reminiscor, obliviscor take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, apparently without difference of meaning; as,—

animus praeteritōrum meminit, the mind remembers the past; meministīne nōmina, do you remember the names? reminīscere veteris incommodī, remember the former disaster; reminīscēns acerbitātem, remembering the severity.

 But neuter pronouns, and adjectives used substantively, regularly stand in the Accusative; as, —

haec memini, I remember this; multa reminiscor, I remember many things.

3. The phrase mihi (tibi, etc.) in mentem venit, following the analogy of memini, takes the Genitive; as,—

civium mihi in mentem venit, I remember the citizens.

Admoneo. Commoneo. Commonefacio.

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as,—

të admoneo amicitiae nostrae, I remind you of our friendship.

- a. But more frequently (in Cicero almost invariably) these verbs take dô with the Ablative; as,
 - de pecunia me admones, you remind me of the money.
- A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative; as,—

të hoc admoneo, I give you this warning.

Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. I. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting take the Genitive of the charge; as,—

mē fūrtī accūsat, he accuses me of theft; Verrem avāritiae coarguit, he convicts Verres of avarice; impietātis absolūtus est, he was acquitted of blasphemy.

- 2. Verbs of Condemning take
 - a. The Genitive of the charge; as, —

pecuniae publicae damnātus, condemned (on the charge) of embezzlement (lit. public money);

capitis damnātus, condemned on a capital charge (lit. on a charge involving his head).

b. The Ablative of the penalty; as, -

capite damnātus est, he was condemned to death;
mīlle nummīs damnātus est, he was condemned (to pay)
a thousand sesterces (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl. of Means).

3. Note the phrases: -

voti damnatus, voti rous, having attained one's prayer (lit. condemned on the score of one's vow);

dē vī, (accused, convicted, etc.) of assault;

inter sicarios, (accused, convicted, etc.) of murder.

Genitive with Impersonal Verbs.

209. I. The Impersonals pudet, paenitet, miseret, taedet, piget take the Accusative of the person affected, along with the Genitive of the person or thing toward whom the feeling is directed; as,—

pudet mē tuī, I am ashamed of you (lit. it shames me of you); paenitet mē hūjus factī, I repent of this act; eum taedet vītae, he is weary of life; pauperum tē miseret, you pity the poor.

- a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus: —
 mē paenitet hōc fēcisse, I repent of having done this;
 mē hōc pudet, I am ashamed of this.
- Misereor and miseresco also govern the Genitive; as, miseremini sociorum, pity the allies.

Interest, Rēfert.

- 210. With interest, it concerns, three points enter into consideration; vis.
 - a) the person concerned;
 - b) the thing about which he is concerned;
 - c) the extent of his concern.
- **211.** I. The *person concerned* is regularly denoted by the Genitive; as,—

patris interest, it concerns the father.

a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, meī, tuī, etc., the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of the Possessive, viz.: meā, tuā, etc.; as,—

meā interest, it concerns me.

NOTE. - But the Latin says omnium nostrum interest, it concerns us all.

- 2. The thing about which a person is concerned is denoted—
 - a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as, —
 hoc reī pūblicae interest, this concerns the state.
 - b) by an Infinitive; as,—
 omnium interest valēre, it concerns all to keep well.
 - c) by an Indirect Question; as, meā interest quandō veniās, I am concerned as to when you are coming.
 - 3. The degree of concern is denoted
 - a) by the Genitive (of Quality): māgnī, parvī, etc.; as,—meā māgnī interest, it concerns me greatly.
 - b) by the Adverbs, māgnopere, magis, māximē, etc.; as, cīvium minimē interest, it concerns the citizens very little.
 - c) by the Neuters, multum, plūs, minus, etc.; as, multum vestrā interest, it concerns you much.
- 4. Refert follows interest in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus:—

meā rēfert, it concerns me;

but rarely illius refert, it concerns him.

Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. I. Verbs of *Plenty* and *Want* sometimes govern the Genitive; as,—

pecuniae indiges, you need money.

- a. These verbs more commonly take the Ablative (§ 214, 1); indigeō is the only verb which has a preference for the Genitive.
- 2. Potior though usually followed by the Ablative, sometimes takes the Genitive, almost always so in Sallust; and regularly in the phrase: potiri rērum, to get control of affairs.
 - In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as,—
 dēsine querellārum, cease your complaints;
 operum solūtī, freed from their tasks.

THE ABLATIVE.

213. The Latin Ablative unites in itself three cases which were originally distinct both in form and in meaning; viz.—

The Ablative or from-case.

The Instrumental or with-case.

The Locative or where-case.

The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

Ablative of Separation.

- 214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.
- 1. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition:
 - a) The Verbs of freeing: libero, solvo, levo;
 - b) The Verbs of depriving: prīvō, spoliō, exuō, fraudō, nūdō;
 - c) The Verbs of lacking: egeo, careo, vaco;
 - d) The corresponding Adjectives, liber, inānis, vacuus, nūdus, and some others of similar meaning.

Thus: -

cūrīs līberātus, freed from cares;

Caesar hostes arm is exuit, Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms;

caret sēnsū commūnī, he lacks common sense; auxiliō eget, he needs help;

bonorum vita vacua est metu, the life of the good is free from fear.

NOTE 1. — Yet Adjectives and libero may take the preposition ab, — regularly so with the Ablative of persons; as, —

urbem a tyranno liberarunt, they freed the city from the tyrant.

NOTE 2. - Indigeo usually takes the Genitive. See § 212, 1, a.

2. Of Verbs signifying to keep from, to remove, to withdraw, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples: -

abstinēre cibō, to abstain from food;

hostes finibus prohibuerunt, they kept the enemy from their borders; praedones ab insula prohibuit, he kept the pirates from the island.

3. Other Verbs of separation usually take the Ablative with a Preposition, particularly compounds of dis- and se-; as, --

> dissentio a te, I dissent from you: secernantur a nobis, let them be separated from us.

Ablative of Source.

215. The Ablative of Source is used with the participles nātus and ortus (in poetry also with ēditus, satus, and some others), to designate parentage or station: as. —

Jove natus, son of Yupiter;

summo loco natus, high-born (lit. born from a very high place); nobili genere ortus, born of a noble family.

- 1. Pronouns regularly (nouns rarely) take ex; as,ex mē nātus, sprung from me.
- 2. To denote remoter descent, ortus ab, or oriundus (with or without ab), is used; as, -

ab Ulixe oriundus, descended from Ulysses.

Ablative of Agent.

- 216. The Ablative accompanied by a (ab) is used with passive verbs to denote the personal agent; as,
 - ā Caesare accūsātus est, he was arraigned by Caesar.
- 1. Collective nouns referring to persons, and abstract nouns when personified, may be construed as the personal agent. Thus: -

hostës ā fortunā dēserēbantur, the enemy were deserted by Fortune; ā multitūdine hostium montes tenebantur, the mountains were held

by a multitude of the enemy.

2. Names of animals sometimes admit the same construction. Thus: -ā canibus laniātus est, he was torn to pieces by dogs.

Ablative of Comparison.

217. I. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of than: as,—

melle dulcior, sweeter than honey;
patria mihi vītā cārior est, my country is dearer to me than life.

- 2. This construction, as a rule, occurs only as a substitute for quam (than) with the Nominative or Accusative. In other cases quam must be used; as,—
- tuī studiosior sum quam illīus, I am fonder of you than of him. Studiosior illo would have meant, I am fonder of you than he is.
- 3. Plüs, minus, amplius, longius are often employed as the equivalents of plüs quam, minus quam, etc. Thus:—
- amplius vīgintī urbēs incenduntur, more than twenty cities are fired;
- minus quinque milia processit, he advanced less than five miles.
- 4. Note the use of opinione with Comparatives; as,—
 opinione celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit, than opinion).

INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Means.

- 218. The Ablative is used to denote means or instrument; as,—
- Alexander sagittā vulnerātus est, Alexander was wounded by an arrow.

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative: -

- 1. Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds take the Ablative; as,—
- divities titiur, he uses his wealth (lit. he benefits himself by his wealth);
- vītā fruitur, he enjoys life (lit. he enjoys himself by life);
 mūnere fungor, I perform my duty (lit. I busy myself with duty);
 carne vescuntur, they eat flesh (lit. feed themselves by means of);
 urbe potītus est, he got possession of the city (lit. made himself powerful by the city).
 - a. Potior sometimes governs the Genitive. See § 212, 2.

- 2. With opus est (rarely usus est), there is need; as,—duce nobis opus est, we need a leader.
 - a. A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with opus as predicate. Thus:—

hoc mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.

- b. An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus dux nobis opus est is a rare form of expression.
- c. Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with opus est; as,—

opus est properāto, there is need of haste.

- 3. With nītor, innīxus, and frētus; as,—
 nītitur hastā, he rests on a spear (lit. supports himself by a spear);
 frētus virtūte, relying on virtue (lit. supported by virtue).
- 4. With continers, consistere, consist of; as,—
 nervis et ossibus continentur, they consist of sinews and bones (lit.
 they are held together by sinews and bones);
 mortals consistit corpore mundus, the world consists of mortal substance (lit. holds together by means of, etc.).
 - 5. With miscere and mutare; as,—
 mella vino miscere, to mix honey with wine;
 pacem bello mutant, they change peace for war (lit. with war).
- 6. In expressions of the type: —
 quid hôc homine faciās, what can you do with this man?
 quid meā Tulliolā fiet, what will become of my dear Tullia? (lit. what will be done with her?)
- 7. In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary English idiom:—

proeliō contendere, vincere, to contend, conquer in battle; proeliō lacessere, to provoke to battle; assuētus (assuētactus) labōre, accustomed to toil; currū vehī, to ride in a chariot; pedibus īre, to go on foot; tībiīs (fidibus) canere, to play the flute (lyre); pilā lūdere, to play ball; castrīs sē tenēre, to keep in camp;

and some others.

- 8. With Verbs of filling and Adjectives of plenty; as,—
 fossās virgultīs complērunt, they filled the trenches with brush.
 - a. But plonus more commonly takes the Genitive. See § 204, 1.
- 9. Under 'Means' belongs also the Ablative of the way by which; as,—

vinum Tiberi devectum, wine brought down (by) the Tiber.

10. The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus:—
militibus a lacu Lemanno ad montom Juram murum perducit, with
(i.e. by means of) his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura.

Ablative of Cause.

- 219. The Ablative is used to denote cause; as, multa gloriae cupiditate fecit, he did many things on account of his love of glory.
- So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, delector, gaudeo, laetor, glorior, fido, confido. Also with contentus; as,—
- fortuna amīcī gaudeo, I rejoice at the fortune of my friend (i.e. on account of it);

victoria sua gloriantur, they exult over their victory;

- natura loci confidebant, they trusted in the character of their country (lit. were confident on account of the character).
 - a. fido and confido always take the Dative of the person (§ 187, II. a); sometimes the Dative of the thing.
- 2. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as jussü, by order of, injussü, rogātü, etc.

Ablative of Manner.

220. The Ablative with cum is used to denote manner; as,—

cum gravitate loquitur, he speaks with dignity.

1. The preposition may be omitted when the Ablative is modified by an adjective; as,—

māgnā gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with great dignity.

2. The preposition is regularly omitted in the expressions jūre, injūriā, jocō, vī, fraude, voluntāte, fūrtō, silentiō.

3. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that in accordance with which or in pursuance of which anything is or is done. It is generally used without a preposition. Thus:—

meā sententiā, according to my opinion; suīs mōribus, in accordance with their custom; suā sponte, voluntarily, of their own accord; eā condicione, on these terms.

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an attendant circumstance of an action or an event; as,—

bonis auspiciis, under good auspices;

nülla est alteroatio clamoribus umquam habita mājoribus, no debate was ever held under circumstances of greater applause;

exstinguitur ingenti lüctü provinciae, he dies under circumstances of great grief on the part of the province;

longo intervallo sequitur, he follows at a great distance.

Ablative of Accompaniment.

222. The Ablative with cum is used to denote accompaniment; as,—

cum comitibus profectus est, he set out with his attendants; cum febrī rediit, he returned with a fever.

1. In military expressions the Ablative may stand without **cum** when modified by any adjective except a numeral; as,—

omnibus copiis, ingentī exercitū, māgnā manū; but always cum exercitū, cum duābus legionibus.

Ablative of Degree of Difference.

223. The Ablative is used with comparatives and words involving comparison (as post, ante, infrā, suprā; superāre, surpass) to denote the degree of difference; as,—

dīmidiō minor, smaller by a half; tribus pedibus altior, three feet higher; paulō post, a little afterwards; quō plūra habēmus, eō cupimus ampliōra, the more we have, the more we want.

Ablative of Quality.

/ 224. The Ablative, modified by an adjective, is used to denote quality; as,—

puella eximiă formă, a girl of exceptional beauty; vir singulărī industriă, a man of singular industry.

- I. The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as, est māgnā prūdentiā, he is (a man) of great wisdom; bonō animō sunt, they are of good courage.
- 2. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as, sunt specië et colore tauri, they are of the appearance and color of a bull.
- 3. In all numerical designations of weight, value, dimension, etc., the Genitive of Quality takes the place of the Ablative of Quality. See § 203. 2.

Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of buying and selling, price is designated by the Ablative; as,—

servum quinque minis ëmit, he bought the slave for five minae.

1. The Ablatives māgnō, plūrimō, parvō, minimō (by omission of pretiō) are used to denote indefinite price; as,—

aedēs māgnō vēndidit, he sold the house for a high price.

2. For the Genitive of Indefinite Price, see § 203, 4.

Ablative of Specification.

226. The Ablative of Specification is used to denote that in respect to which something is or is done; as,—

Helvētiī omnibus Gallīs virtūte praestābant, the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor; pede claudus, lame in his foot.

1. Note the phrases: -

mājor nātū, older (lit. greater as to age); minor nātū, younger.

2. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with dignus and indignus; as,—

digni honore, worthy of honor; fide indigni, unworthy of confidence.

Ablative Absolute.

- 227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; as,—
- urbe captā, Aenēās fūgit, when the city had been captured, Aeneas fled (lit. the city having been captured).
- Instead of a participle we often find an adjective or noun; as, vīvō Caesare rēs pūblica salva erat, while Caesar was alive the state was safe (lit. Caesar being alive);
- Tarquiniō rēge, Pythagorās in Italiam vēnit, in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy (lit. Tarquin being king).
- Cn. Pompējō, M. Crassō consulibus, in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey and Marcus Crassus.
- 2. The Ablative Absolute is generally used in Latin where in English we employ subordinate clauses. Thus the Ablative Absolute may correspond to a clause denoting
 - a) Time, as in the foregoing examples.
 - b) Condition; as,
 - omnēs virtūtēs jacent, voluptāte dominante, all virtues lie prostrate, if pleasure is master.
 - c) Opposition; as,
 - perditīs omnibus rēbus, virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself.
 - d) Cause; as,
 - nullo adversante regnum obtinuit, since no one opposed him, he secured the throne.
 - e) Attendant circumstance; as,
 - passis palmis pacem petiverunt, with hands outstretched they sued for peace.
- 3. An Infinitive or clause sometimes occurs in the Ablative Absolute construction in Livy and later writers; as,
 - audītō eum fūgisse, when it was heard that he had fled.
- 4. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute construction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.

LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Place.

A. Place where.

228. The place where is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as,—

in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

- 1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; vis.
 - a) Names of towns,—except Singulars of the First and Second Declensions; as,—

Carthagine, at Carthage; Athēnīs, at Athens; Vēiīs, at Veii.

b) The general words loco, locis, parte, also many words modified by totus or even by other Adjectives; as,—

hōc locō, at this place; tōtīs castrīs, in the whole camp.

- c) The special words: foris, out of doors; rūrī, in the country; terrā marīque, on land and sea.
- d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place; as,—

stant litore puppes, the ships rest on the beach.

B. Place from which.1

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as,—

ab Italia profectus est, he set out from Italy; ex urbe rediit, he returned from the city.

- 1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz.
 - a) Names of towns and small islands; as, —
 Rōmā profectus est, he set out from Rome;
 Rhodō revertit, he returned from Rhodes.

¹ Place from which, though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.

- b) domo, from home; rure, from the country.
- c) Freely in poetry; as, —

Italia decessit, he withdrew from Italy.

- 2. With names of towns, ab is used to mean from the vicinity of, or to denote the point whence distance is measured; as,
 - ā Gergoviā discessit, he withdrew from the vicinity of Gergovia.
 - ā Romā X mīlia aberat, he was ten miles distant from Rome.

Urbe and oppido, when standing in apposition with a town name, are accompanied by a preposition; as,—

Curibus ex oppido Sabinorum, from Cures, a town of the Sabines.

Ablative of Time.

A. Time at which.

230. The Ablative is used to denote the time at which; as,—

quārtā hōrā mortuus est, he died at the fourth hour; annō septuāgēsimō cōnsul creātus, elected consul in his seventieth year.

- 1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this construction, particularly annus, ver, aestas, hiems, dies, nox, hora, comitia (Election Day), lūdī (the Games), etc.
- 2. Words not denoting time require the preposition in, unless accompanied by a modifier. Thus:—

in pāce, in peace; in bellō, in war; but secundō bellō Pūnicō, in the second Punic War.

3. Expressions like in eō tempore, in summā senectūte take the preposition because they denote *situation* rather than *time*.

B. Time within which.

- 231. Time within which is denoted by the Ablative either with or without a preposition; as,—
- stella Sāturnī trīgintā annīs cursum conficit, the planet Saturn completes its orbit within thirty years; ter in anno, thrice in the course of the year.
- Occasionally the Ablative denotes duration of time; as,—
 blenniō prōsperas rēs habuit, for two years he had a prosperous administration.

THE LOCATIVE.

- 232. The Locative case occurs only in the following words: —.
- 1. Regularly in the Singular of names of towns and small islands of the first and second declensions, to denote the place in which; as,—

Romae, at Rome;

Corinth, at Corinth:

Rhodī, at Rhodes.

2. In the following special forms: -

domī, at home;

humī, on the ground; mīlitiae, in war;

belli, in war;
vesperi, at evening;

herī, yesterday.

- 3. Note the phrase pendere animi, lit. to be in suspense in one's mind.
 - Consonant Stems occasionally form a Locative in -ī; as, —
 Lacedaemonī, at Sparta; Carthāginī, at Carthage;
 Tīburī, at Tibur.

CHAPTER III. - Syntax of Adjectives.

- 233. 1. The word with which an Adjective agrees is called its Subject.
- 2. Attributive and Predicate Adjectives. An Attributive Adjective is one that limits its subject directly; as,—

vir sapiēns, a wise man;

A Predicate Adjective is one that limits its subject through the medium of a verb (usually esse); as,—

vir est sapiēns, *the man is wise*; vir vidēbātur sapiēns, *the man seemed wise*; vir jūdicātus est sapiēns, *the man was judged wise*.

3. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

- 234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.
- 1. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural; as, prīma et vīcēsima legiōnēs, the first and twentieth legions.
- 2. A Predicate Adjective may stand in the Neuter when its Subject is Masculine or Feminine and denotes a thing; as,—

mors est miserum, death is a wretched thing.

235. Agreement with Two or More Nouns.

A. AGREEMENT AS TO NUMBER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in number with the nearest noun; as,—

pater tuus et mater, your father and mother; eadem alacritas et studium, the same eagerness and zeal.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural; as,—

pax et concordia sunt pulchrae, peace and concord are glorious.

B. AGRÈEMENT AS TO GENDER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as,—

res operae multae ac laboris, a matter of much effort and labor.

- 2. When the Adjective is Predicative
 - a) If the nouns are of the same gender, the Adjective agrees with them in gender; as,—

pater et filius capti sunt, father and son were captured.

Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as,—

stultitia et timiditäs fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice must be shunned.

- b) If the nouns are of different gender; then,
 - a) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as,—
 - pater et mater mortus sunt, the father and mother have died.
 - β) In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter: as. —
 - honores et victoriae fortuïta sunt, honors and victories are accidental.
 - γ) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is,
 - aa) Sometimes Masculine; as, -
 - domus, uxor, liberi inventi sunt, home, wife, and children are secured.
 - $\beta\beta$) Sometimes Neuter; as,—
 - parentēs, līberēs, frātrēs vīlia habēre, to hold parents, children, brothers, cheap.
 - γγ) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun; as, populf provinciaeque liberatae sunt, nations and provinces were liberated.
- c) Construction according to Sense. Sometimes an Adjective does not agree with a noun according to strict grammatical form, but according to sense; as,
 - pars bestis objects sunt, part (of the men) were thrown to beasts.

ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

236. I. PLURAL ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY. Adjectives are quite freely used as Substantives in the Plural. The Masculine denotes persons; the Neuter denotes things; as,—

doctī, scholars; parva, small things; malī, the wicked; māgna, great things; Graecī, the Greeks; ütilia, useful things; nostrī, our men.

2. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as māgnōrum, omnium; māgnīs, omnibus, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as,—

parva componere māgnīs, to compare small things with great. Otherwise the Latin says: māgnārum rērum, māgnīs rēbus, etc.

- 237. SINGULAR ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY. Adjectives are less freely used as Substantives in the Singular than in the Plural.
 - Masculine Adjectives occur only occasionally in this use; as, probus invidet nēminī, the honest man envies nobody.
 - a. Usually vir, homō, or some similar word is employed; as, —
 homō doctus, a scholar;
 vir Rōmānus, a Roman.
 - b. But when limited by a pronoun any adjective may be so used; as,—

hic doctus, this scholar; doctus quidam, a certain scholar.

2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as, —

vērum, truth; jūstum, justice; honestum, virtue.

a. This substantive use of Neuter Singulars is commonest in the construction of the Genitive of the Whole, and after Prepositions; as,—

aliquid vorl, something true; nihil novl, nothing new; in medio, in the midst.

238. From Adjectives which, like the above, occasionally admit the substantive use, must be carefully distinguished certain others which have become nouns; as,—

adversārius, opponent; aequālis, contemporary; amīcus, friend; cognātus, kinsman; hTberna, winter quarters; propinquus, relative; socius, partner; sodālis, comrade;

vicinus, neighbor; etc.

ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbial phrase; as,—senātus frequēns convēnit, the senate assembled in great numbers; fuit assiduus mēcum, he was constantly with me.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

240. 1. The Comparative often corresponds to the English Positive with 'rather,' 'somewhat,' 'too'; as, —

senectüs est loquācior, old age is rather talkative.

2. So the Superlative often corresponds to the Positive with 'very'; as,—

vir fortissimus, a very brave man.

3. Strengthening Words. Vel and quam are often used with the Superlative as strengthening particles, vel with the force of 'very,' and quam with the force of 'as possible'; as,—

vel māximus, the very greatest; quam māximae copiae, as great forces as possible.

4. Phrases of the type 'more rich than brave' regularly take the Comparative in both members; as,—

exercitus erat ditior quam fortior, the army was more rich than brave.

OTHER PECULIARITIES.

241. 1. Certain Adjectives may be used to denote a part of an object, chiefly prīmus, extrēmus, summus, medius, īnfimus, īmus; as,—

summus mons, the top of the mountain; extrema hieme, in the last part of the winter.

2. **Prior**, **prīmus**, **ultimus**, and **postrēmus** are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as,—

primus eam vidi, I was the first who saw her; ultimus decessit, he was the last who withdrew.

3. When multus and another adjective both limit the same noun, et is generally used; as,—

multae et mägnae cögitätiönes, many (and) great thoughts.

CHAPTER IV. — Syntax of Pronouns.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

242. I. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of emphasis, contrast, or clearness. Thus ordinarily:—

videō, I see; amat, he loves.

But ego të video, et tu më vidës, I see you, and you see me.

2. The Genitives meī, tuī, nostrī, vestrī are used only as Objective Genitives; nostrum and vestrum as Genitives of the Whole. Thus:—

memor tuī, mindful of you; dēsīderium vestrī, longing for you; nēmō vestrum, no one of you.

- a. But nostrum and vestrum are regularly used in place of the Possessive in the phrases omnium nostrum, omnium vestrum.
- 3. The First Plural is often used for the First Singular of Pronouns and Verbs. Compare the Eng. editorial 'we.'
- 4. When two Verbs govern the same object, the Latin does not use a pronoun with the second, as is the rule in English. Thus:—

virtūs amīcitiās conciliat et conservat, virtue establishes friendships and maintains them (not eas conservat).

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

243. I. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of clearness. Thus:

patrem amo, I love my father;

dē fīliī morte fiēbās, you wept for the death of your son. But—

de morte fīliī meī flebās, you wept for the death of my son.

a. When expressed merely for the sake of clearness, the possessive usually stands after its noun; but in order to indicate emphasis or contrast, it precedes; as,—

suā manū līberōs occīdit, with his own hand he slew his children;

meā quidem sententiā, in my opinion at least.

2. Sometimes the Possessive Pronouns are used with the force of an Objective Genitive; as,—

metus vester, fear of you; dēsīderium tuum, longing for you.

3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs **ipsīus** or **ipsōrum**, in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as,—

meā ipsīus operā, by my own help; nostrā ipsōrum operā, by our own help;

a. So sometimes other Genitives; as,—
 meā ūnius operā, by the assistance of me alone.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

- 244. 1. The Reflexive Pronoun se and the Possessive Reflexive suus have a double use:—
- I. They may refer to the subject of the clause (either principal or subordinate) in which they stand,—'Direct Reflexives'; as,—

sē amant, they love themselves; suōs amīcōs adjuvat, he helps his own friends; eum ōrāvī, ut sē servāret, I besought him to save himself.

- II. They may stand in a subordinate clause and refer to the subject of the principal clause, 'Indirect Reflexives'; as, —
- m5 oravit ut s6 d6fenderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. that I defend himself);
- mē orāvērunt, ut fortūnārum suārum dēfēnsionem susciperem, they besought me to undertake the defense of their fortunes.
 - a. The Indirect Reflexive is mainly restricted to those clauses which express the thought, not of the author, but of the subject of the principal clause.
- 2. The Genitive sul is regularly employed, like mel and tul, as an Objective Genitive, e.g. oblitus sul, forgetful of himself; but it occasionally occurs particularly in post-Augustan writers in place of the Possessive suus; as, fruitur fāmā sul, he enjoys his own fame.
- 3. **So** and **suus** are sometimes used in the sense, *one's self*, *one's own*, where the reference is not to any particular person; as,—

sē amāre, to love one's self; suum genium propitiāre, to propitiate one's own genius. 4. Saus sometimes occurs in the meaning his own, their own, etc. referring not to the subject but to an oblique case; as,—

Hannibalem suī cīvēs ē cīvitāte ējēcērunt, his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.

a. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with quisque; as,—

suus quemque error vexat, his own error troubles each.

5. The Reflexives for the first and second persons are supplied by the oblique cases of ego and ttl (§ 85); as,—

vos defenditis, you defend yourselves.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

245. I. The Latin has no special reciprocal pronoun ('each other'), but expresses the reciprocal notion by the phrases: inter nos, inter vos, inter so; as,—

Belgae obsides inter se dederunt, the Belgae gave each other hostages (lit. among themselves);

amamus inter nos, we love each other:

Gallī inter sē cohortātī sunt, the Gauls exhorted each other.

a. Note that the Object is not expressed in sentences of this type.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Hic, Ille, Iste.

- **246.** I. Where hīo and ille are used in contrast, hīo usually refers to the latter of two objects, and ille to the former.
 - 2. Hic and ille are often used in the sense of 'the following'; as,—
- Themistocles his verbis epistulam misit, Themistocles sent a letter (couched) in the following words;
- illud intellego, omnium ora in me conversa esse, I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me.
 - 3. Ille often means the famous; as, Solon ille, the famous Solon.
 - 4. Iste frequently involves contempt; as, iste homo, that fellow!
- 5. The above pronouns, along with is, are usually attracted to the gender of a predicate noun; as, hio cst honor, meminisse officium suum, this is an honor, to be mindful of one's duty.

Ta

- 247. 1. Is often serves as the antecedent of the relative qui.
- Māximum, eum quī Tarentum recēpit, dīlēxī, I loved Maximus, the man who retook Tarentum.
 - a. Closely akin to this usage is is in the sense of such (= talis);
 as,
 - non sum is qui terrear, I am not such a person as to be frightened.
 - Note the phrase id quod, where id stands in apposition with an entire clause; as,
 - non suspicabatur (id quod nunc sentiet) satis multos testos nobis reliquos esse, he did not suspect (a thing which he will now perceive) that we had witnesses enough left.

Yet quod alone, without preceding id, sometimes occurs in this use.

- 2. Is also in all cases serves as the personal pronoun of the third person, 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' 'them.'
- 3. When the English uses 'that of,' 'those of' to avoid repetition of the noun, the Latin omits the pronoun; as,—
- in exercitū Sullae et posteā in Crassī fuerat, he had been in the army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus;
- nullae mē fābulae dēlectant nisi Plautī, no plays delight me except those of Plautus.
- 4. Note the phrases et is, et ea, etc., in the sense: and that too; as,—vincula, et ea sempiterna, imprisonment, and that too permanently.

Īdem.

- 248. 1. **Idem** in apposition with the subject or object often has the force of also, likewise; as,—
- quod idem mihi contigit, which likewise happened to me (lit. which, the same thing);
- bonus vir, quem eundem sapientem appellāmus, a good man, whom we call also wise.
 - 2. For idem atque (ac), the same as, see § 341, 1, c.

Ipse.

249. I. Ipse, literally *self*, acquires its special force from the context; as,—

eō ipsō diē, on that very day;

ad ipsam ripam, close to the bank;

ipso terrore, by mere fright;

valvae sē ipsae aperuērunt, the doors opened of their own accord; ipse aderat, he was present in person.

2. The reflexive pronouns are often emphasized by the addition of ipse, but ipse in such cases, instead of standing in apposition with the reflexive, more commonly agrees with the subject; as,—

sēcum ipsī loquuntur, they talk with themselves; sē ipse continēre non potest, he cannot contain himself.

3. Ipse is also used as an Indirect Reflexive for the purpose of marking a contrast or avoiding an ambiguity; as,—

Persae pertimuërunt në Alcibiadës ab ipsīs dëscīsceret et cum suīs in grātiam redīret, the Persians feared that Alcibiades would break with them and become reconciled with his countrymen.

ea molestissimë ferre dëbent hominës quae ipsorum oulpa contracta sunt, men ought to chafe most over those things which have been brought about by their own fault (as opposed to the fault of others).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

250. Agreement. 1. The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender and Number, but its case is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands; as,—

mulier quam vidēbāmus, the woman whom we saw; bona quibus fruimur, the blessings which we enjoy.

2. Where the antecedent is compound, the same principles for number and gender prevail as in case of predicate adjectives under similar conditions (see \S 235, B, 2). Thus:—

pater et filius, qui capti sunt, the father and son who were captured; stultitia et timiditäs quae fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice which must be shunned;

honores et victoriae quae sunt fortuita, honors and victories which are accidental.

- 3. The Relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun (either Nominative or Accusative) instead of its antecedent; as,—
- career, quae lautumiae vocantur, the prison, which is called Lautumiae;

Celtae, quae est tertia pars, the Celts, who are the third part.

- 4. Sometimes the Relative takes its gender and number from the meaning of its antecedent; as,—
- pars qui bestis objecti sunt, a part (of the men) who were thrown to beasts.
- 5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its antecedent; as, —

nātus eō patre quō dīxī, born of the father that I said.

- 251. Antecedent. 1. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted; as,—
- quī nātūram sequitur sapiēns est, he who follows Nature is wise.
- 2. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective); as,—
- nostra qui remansimus caedes, the slaughter of us who remained; servili tumultu, quos usus ac disciplina sublevarunt, at the uprising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted (servili = servorum).
- Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative: as, erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus, there were two routes, by which (routes).
- 4. Incorporation of Antecedent in Relative Clause. The antecedent is often incorporated in the relative clause. Thus:
 - a) When the relative clause stands first; as, quam quisque novit artem in hāc sē exerceat, let each one practice the branch which he knows.
 - b) When the antecedent is an appositive; as, non longe ā Tolosātium finibus absunt, quae cīvitās est in provinciā, they are not far from the borders of the Tolosates, a state which is in our province.
 - c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative; as,—
 Themistocles de servis suis, quem habuit fidelissimum
 misit, Themistocles sent the most trusty slave he had.

d) In expressions of the type —

quā es prūdentiā; quae tua est prūdentia, such is your prudence (lit. of which prudence you are; which is your prudence).

- 5. The Relative is never omitted in Latin as it is in English. Thus the boy I saw must be puer quem vīdī.
- 6. The Relative is used freely in Latin, particularly at the beginning of a sentence, where in English we employ a demonstrative; as,—

quo factum est, by this it happened; quae cum ita sint, since this is so; quibus rebus cognitis, when these things became known.

- 7. The Relative introducing a subordinate clause may belong grammatically to a clause which is subordinate to the one it introduces; as,—
- numquam dīgnē satis laudārī philosophia poterit, cui quī pāreat, omne tempus aetātis sine molestiā possit dēgere, philosophy can never be praised enough, since he who obeys her can pass all his life without annoyance (lit. he who obeys which, etc.).

Here cui introduces the subordinate clause possit and connects it with philosophia; but cui is governed by pāreat, which is subordinate to possit.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

252. I. Quis, any one, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands usually in combination with sī, nisi, nē, num; as.—

sī quis putat, if any one thinks.

2. Aliquis (adj. aliquī) is more definite than quis, and corresponds usually to the English some one, somebody, some; as,—

nunc aliquis dīcat mihi, now let somebody tell me; utinam modo agātur aliquid, oh that something may be done.

- 3. Quīdam, a certain one, is still more definite than aliquis; as,—homō quīdam, a certain man (i.e. one whom I have in mind).
 - a. Quidam (with or without quast, as if) is sometimes used in the sense: a sort of, kind of; as,—

quaedam cognātio, a sort of relationship; mors est quasi quaedam migrātio, death is a kind of transfer, as it were. 4. Quisquam, any one, any one whoever (more general than quis), and its corresponding adjective üllus, any, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as,—

jūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam, justice never harms anybody; sī quisquam, Catō sapiōns fuit, if anybody was ever wise, Cato was; potestne quisquam sine perturbātiōne animī īrāscī, can anybody be anery without excitement?

sī ūllō modō fierī potest, if it can be done in any way; taetrior hīc tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiōrum, he was a viler tyrant than any of his predecessors.

- 5. Quisque, each one, is used especially under the following circumstances:
 - a) In connection with suus. See § 244, 4, a.
 - b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun;
 as,
 - quod cuique obtigit, id teneat, what falls to each, that let him hold.
 - c) In connection with superlatives; as,—
 optimus quisque, all the best (lit. each best one).
 - d) With ordinal numerals; as,—
 quīntō quōque annō, every four years (lit. each fifth year).
- 6. Nomo, no one, in addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as,—

nēmō mortālis, no mortal; nēmō Rōmānus, no Roman.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

253. 1. Alius, another, and alter, the other, are often used correlatively; as,—

aliud loquitur, aliud sentit, he says one thing, he thinks another; aliī resistunt, aliī fugiunt, some resist, others flee;

alter exercitum perdidit, alter vendidit, one ruined the army, the other sold it:

alterī sē in montem recēpērunt, alterī ad impedīmenta sē contulērunt, the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage. 2. Where the English says one does one thing, another another, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement; as,—

alius aliud amat, one likes one thing, another another; aliud alis placet, one thing pleases some, another others.

- a. So sometimes with adverbs; as,—
 alii alio fugiunt, some flee in one direction, others in another.
- 3. The Latin also expresses the notion 'each other' by means of alius repeated; as,—

Gallī alius alium cohortātī sunt, the Gauls encouraged each other.

- Cēterī means the rest, all the others; as,—
 cēterīs praestāre, to be superior to all the others.
- 5. Reliqui means the others in the sense of the rest, those remaining,—hence is the regular word with numerals; as,—

reliquī sex, the six others.

6. **Nescio quis** forms a compound indefinite pronoun with the force of some one or other; as,—

causidicus nescio quis, some pettifogger or other; mīsit nescio quem, he sent some one or other; nescio quō pactō, somehow or other.

CHAPTER V. — Syntax of Verbs.

AGREEMENT.

With One Subject.

254. I. Agreement in Number and Person. A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person; as,—

võs vidētis, you see; pater filiõs īnstituit, the father trains his sons.

2. Agreement in Gender. In the compound forms of the verb the participle regularly agrees with its subject in gender; as,—

sēditio repressa est, the mutiny was checked.

- 3. But when a predicate noun is of different gender or number from its subject, the verb usually agrees with its nearest substantive; as,—

 Tarquinii materna patria erat, Tarquinii was his native country on his mother's side:
- non omnis error stultitia est dicenda, not every error is to be called folly.
 - a. Less frequently the verb agrees with an appositive; as,—
 Corioli, oppidum Volscorum, captum est, Corioli, a town of the Volsci, was captured.
- 4. Construction according to Sense. Sometimes the verb agrees with its subject according to sense instead of strict grammatical form. Thus:
 - a) In Number; as,—
 multitūdō hominum convēnerant, a crowd of men had
 gathered.
 - b) In Gender; as,—
 duo mīlia crucibus adfīxī sunt, two thousand (men) were crucified.

With Two or More Subjects.

255. I. Agreement in Number. With two or more subjects the verb is regularly plural; as,—

pater et filius mortui sunt, the father and son died.

- 2. But sometimes the verb agrees with the nearest subject; viz.,
 - a) When the verb precedes both subjects or stands between them; as,—

mortuus est pater et filius; pater mortuus est et filius.

- b) When the subjects are connected by aut; aut . . . aut; vel . . . vel; neque . . . neque; as, neque pater neque filius mortuus est, neither father nor son died.
- 3. When the different subjects are felt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as,—
- temeritās ignorātioque vitiosa est, rashness and ignorance are bad.
 - a. This is regularly the case in senātus populusque Romānus.

- 4. Agreement in Person. With subjects of different persons the verb always takes the *first* person rather than the *second*, and the *second* rather than the *third*; as,—
- sī tū et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicerō valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.
- 5. Agreement in Gender. With subjects of different genders the participle in the compound tenses follows the same principles as laid down for predicate adjectives. See § 235, B, 2.

VOICES.

- 256. 1. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its original middle or reflexive meaning; as,—
- ego non patiar eum defendi, I shall not allow him to defend himself.
- 2. In imitation of Greek usage many perfect passive participles are used by the poets as indirect middles, *i.e.* the subject is viewed as acting not upon himself, but as doing something *in his own interest*; as, vēlātus tempora, having veiled his temples.
 - a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as, tunicā indūcitur artūs, he covers his limbs with a tunic.
 - Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as,—
 ourritur, people run (lit. it is run);
 ventum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. it was come).

TENSES.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.

- 257. I. The Latin tenses express two distinct notions:
 - a) The period of time to which the action belongs: Present, Past, or Future.
 - b) The kind of action: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds of action for each of the three periods of time (making practically nine

tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table:—

PEDIOD OF TIME

		IERIOD OF TIME.		
		PRESENT.	Past.	FUTURE.
KIND OF ACTION.	Undefined.	Present: sorībō, / write.	Historical Perfect: scripsi, I wrote.	Future: scribam, / shall write.
	Going on.	Present: scribo, I am writing.	Imperfect: scribēbam, I was writing.	Future: scribam, / shall be writing.
	Completed.	Present Perfect: scripsi, / have written.	Pluperfect: scripseram, I had written.	Future Perfect: scripsero, 1 shall have writ- ten.

2. It will be seen that the Present may express Undefined action or action Going on; so also the Future. The Perfect likewise has a double use, according as it denotes action Completed in present time (Present Perfect) or Undefined action belonging to past time (Historical Perfect).

Principal and Historical Tenses.

258. Tenses which denote Present or Future time are called **Principal** Tenses; those which denote Past time are called **Historical**.

The Principal Tenses of the Indicative are: Present, Future, Present Perfect, Future Perfect.

The Historical Tenses are: Imperfect, Historical Perfect, Pluperfect.

Present Indicative.

- 259. Besides the two uses indicated in the table, the Present Indicative presents the following peculiarities:—
- 1. It is used to denote a general truth, i.e. something true not merely in the present but at all times ('Gnomic Present'); as,—
- virtus conciliat amicitias et conservat, virtue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (i.e. always does so).

- 2. It is used of an attempted action ('Conative Present'); as,—
 dum vitant vitia, in contraria current, while they try to avoid
 (vitant) vices, they rush into opposite ones.
- 3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action ('Historical Present'); as,—
- Caesar Aeduls obsides imperat, Caesar demanded hostages of the Aedui (lit. demands).
- 4. In combination with jam, jam din, jam pridem, and similar words, the Present is frequently used of an action originating in the past and continuing in the present; as,—
- jam dit cupio te visere, I have long been desiring to visit you (i.e. I desire and have long desired).

Imperfect Indicative.

260. 1. The Imperfect primarily denotes action going on in past time; as,—

librum legēbam, I was reading a book.

- a. This force makes the Imperfect especially adapted to serve as the tense of description (as opposed to mere narration).
- 2. From the notion of action going on, there easily develops the notion of repeated or customary action; as,—

legatos interrogabat, he kept asking the envoys; puer C. Duslium videbam, as a boy I often used to see Gaius Duilius.

- 3. Like the Present, the Imperfect often denotes an attempted action ('Conative Imperfect'); as,—
- hostës noströs intra munitionës progredi prohibëbant, the enemy tried to prevent (prohibëbant) our men from advancing within the fortifications.
- 4. The Imperfect, with jam, jam diū, jam dūdum, etc., is sometimes used of a past action which had been continuing for some time; as,—
- domicilium Romae multos jam annos habebat, he had had his residence at Rome for many years (i.e. he had it at this time and had long had it).

Future Indicative.

- 261. 1. The two regular uses of the Future have been given above in the Table (p. 168).
- 2. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future than is the English. We say: 'If he comes, I shall be glad,' where we really mean: 'If he shall come,' etc. In such cases the Latin rarely admits the Present, but generally employs the Future.
 - 3. Sometimes the Future has Imperative force; as, dīcēs, say!

Perfect Indicative.

262. A. PRESENT PERFECT. Several Present Perfects denote the state resulting from a completed act, and so seem equivalent to the Present; as,—

novi cognovi I know (lit. I have become acquainted with); consuovi, I am wont (lit. I have become accustomed).

- B. HISTORICAL PERFECT. The Historical Perfect is primarily the tense of narration (as opposed to the Imperfect, the tense of description); as,—
- Rēgulus in senātum vēnit, mandāta exposuit, reddī captīvos negāvit esse titile, Regulus came into the Senate, set forth his commission, said it was useless for captives to be returned.
- r. Occasionally the Historical Perfect is used of a general truth ('Gnomic Perfect').

Pluperfect Indicative.

- 263. The Latin Pluperfect, like the English Past Perfect, denotes an act completed in the past; as,—
- Caesar Rhēnum trānsīre dēcrēverat, sed nāvēs deerant, Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats.

Future Perfect Indicative.

- 264. The Future Perfect denotes an action completed in future time. Thus:—
- scrIbam epistulam, cum redieris, I will write the letter when you have returned (lit. when you shall have returned).
 - a. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future Perfect than the English, which commonly employs the Present Perfect instead of the Future Perfect.

Epistolary Tenses.

265. In letters the writer often uses tenses which are not appropriate at the time of writing, but which will be so at the time when his letter is received; he thus employs the Imperfect and the Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Present Perfect; as,—

nihil habēbam quod scrīberem, neque enim novī quidquam audieram et ad tuās omnēs epistulās jam rescrīpseram, I have nothing to write, for I have heard no news and have already answered all your letters.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

- 266. A. In Independent Sentences. See §§ 272-280.
- B. In Dependent Sentences. In dependent sentences the tenses of the subjunctive usually conform to the so-called

Sequence of Tenses.

- 267. 1. In the Subjunctive the Present and Perfect are Principal tenses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, Historical.
- 2. By the Sequence of Tenses Principal tenses are followed by Principal, Historical by Historical. Thus:—

PRINCIPAL SEQUENCE, -

video quid facias, I see what you are doing.

videbo quid facias, I shall see what you are doing.

videro quid facias, I shall have seen what you are doing.

video quid feceris, I see what you have done.

vidēbō quid fēceris, I shall see what you have done.

vīderō quid fēceris, I shall have seen what you have done.

HISTORICAL SEQUENCE, -

vidēbam quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing.

vidi quid faceres, I saw what you were doing.

videram quid faceres, I had seen what you were doing.

vidēbam quid fēcissēs, I saw what you had done.

vīdī quid fēcissēs, I saw what you had done.

videram quid fēcissēs, I had seen what you had done.

3. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive denote incomplete action, the Perfect and Pluperfect completed action, exactly as in the Indicative.

Peculiarities of Sequence.

- **268.** I. The Perfect Indicative is usually an historical tense (even when translated in English as a Present Perfect), and so is followed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive: as.—
- dēmonstrāvī quārē ad causam accēderem, I have shown why I took the case (lit. I showed why, etc.).
- 2. A dependent Perfect Infinitive is treated as an historical tense wherever, if resolved into an equivalent Indicative, it would be historical; as,—
- videor ostendisse quales del essent, I seem to have shown of what nature the gods are (ostendisse here corresponds to an Indicative, ostendi, I showed).
- 3. The Historical Present is sometimes regarded as a principal tense, sometimes as historical. Thus:—
- Sulla suos hortatur ut forti animo sint, Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted;
- Gallos hortatur ut arma caperent, he exhorted the Gauls to take arms.
- 4. Conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type are not affected by the principles for the Sequence of Tenses; as,—
- honestum täle est ut vel sī ignörārent id hominēs suā tamen pulchritūdine laudābile esset, virtue is such a thing that even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be worthy of praise for its own loveliness.
- 5. In conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type the Imperfect Subjunctive is usually treated as an Historical tense; as,—
- sī solos eos diceres miseros, quibus moriendum esset, neminem tū quidem eorum quī vīverent exciperes, if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one of those who live.
- 6. In clauses of Result and some others, the Perfect Subjunctive is sometimes used as an historical tense. Thus:—
- rex tantum motus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem judicarit, the king was so much moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy.

This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos and subsequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a result simply as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, jūdicārit in the above example corresponds to a jūdicāvit, he adjudged. To denote a result as something continuous, all writers use the Imperfect Subjunctive after historical tenses.

- 7. Sometimes perspicuity demands that the ordinary principles of Sequence be abandoned altogether. Thus:
 - a) We may have the Present or Perfect Subjunctive after an historical tense; as,—
 - Verres Siciliam ita perdidit ut ea restitui non possit, Verres so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored (Direct statement; non potest restitui);
 - ārdēbat Hortēnsius dicendi cupiditāte sīc, ut in nūllō flāgrantius studium viderim, Hortensius burned so with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a greater desire (Direct statement: in nūllō vidī, I have seen in no one).

NOTE.—This usage is different from that cited under 6. Here, by neglect of Sequence, the Perfect is used as a principal tense; there the Perfect was used as an historical tense.

- b) We may have a principal tense followed by the Perfect Subjunctive used historically; as,
 - nesció quid causae fuerit cür nülläs ad me litteras dares, I do not know what reason there was why you did not send me a letter.

Here fuerit is historical, as is shown by the following Imperfect Subjunctive.

Method of expressing Future Time in the Subjunctive.

- 269. The Future and Future Perfect which are lacking to the Latin Subjunctive are supplied in subordinate clauses as follows:—
 - a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses, by the Imperfect after historical tenses.
 - b) The Future Perfect is supplied by the Perfect after principal tenses, by the Pluperfect after historical tenses.

This is especially frequent when the context clearly shows, by the presence of a future tense in the main clause, that the reference is to future time. Thus:—

- Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperet, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall order;
- Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperāret, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order;
- Gallī pollicentur sē factūrēs quae Caesar imperāverit, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall have ordered;
- Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāvisset, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should have ordered.
- 2. Even where the context does not contain a Future tense in the main clause, Future time is often expressed in the subordinate clauses by the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Thus:—
- timeo ne veniat, I am afraid he will come;
- Caesar exspectabat quid consilii hostes caperent, Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt.
- 3. Where greater definiteness is necessary the periphrastic forms in -ūrus sim and -ūrus essem are employed, especially in clauses of Result, Indirect Questions, and after non dubito quin; as,—
- non dubito quin pater venturus sit, I do not doubt that my father will come;
- non dubitabam quin pater venturus esset, I did not doubt that my father would come.
- 4. Where the verb has no Future Active Participle or where it stands in the passive voice, its Future character may be indicated by the use of the particles mox, brevī, statim, etc., in connection with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive; as,—
- non dubito quin to mox hujus rel paeniteat, I do not doubt that you will soon repent of this thing;
- non dubitabam quin haec res brevi conficeretur, I did not doubt that this thing would soon be finished.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

- 270. 1. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb on which they depend. Thus:
 - a) The Present Infinitive represents an act as contemporaneous with the time of the verb on which it depends; as,—
 vidētur honorēs adsequī, he seems to be gaining honors;
 vidēbātur honorēs adsequī, he seemed to be gaining honors.

- b) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as prior to the time of the verb on which it depends; as,
 - vidētur honorēs adsecūtus esse, he seems to have gained honors:
 - visus est honores adsectitus esse, he seemed to have gained honors.
- c) The Future Infinitive represents an act as subsequent to that of the verb on which it depends; as,
 - vidētur honorēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seems about to gain honors;
 - vīsus est honorēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seemed about to gain honors.
- 2. Where the English says 'ought to have done,' 'might have done,' etc., the Latin uses debui, oportuit, potui, with the Present Infinitive; as,—

debuit dicere, he ought to have said (lit. owed it to say); oportuit venire, he ought to have come; potuit videre, he might have seen.

- a. Oportuit, volö, nölö (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a
 Perfect Infinitive instead of the Present; as,
 - hoc jam pridem factum esse oportuit, this ought long ago to have been done.
- 3. PERIPHRASTIC FUTURE INFINITIVE. Verbs that have no Participial Stem express the Future Infinitive Active and Passive by fore ut or futurum esse ut, with the Subjunctive; as,—
- spērō fore ut tē paeniteat levitātis, I hope you will repent of your fickleness (lit. hope it will happen that you repent);
- spērō futūrum esse ut hostēs arceantur, I hope that the enemy will be kept off.
 - a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participial Stem; as,—spērō fore ut hostēs vincantur, I hope the enemy will be conquered.
- 4. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with fore; as,—
- spērō epistulam scrīptam fore, I hope the letter will have been written;
- puto me omnia adeptum fore, I think that I shall have gained everything.

THE MOODS.

MOODS IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

The Indicative in Independent Sentences.

- 271. The Indicative is used for the statement of facts, the supposition of facts, or inquiry after facts.
 - 1. Note the following idiomatic uses:
 - a) With possum; as,—
 possum multa dīcere, I might say much;
 poteram multa dīcere, I might have said much (§ 270, 2).
 - b) In such expressions as longum est, aequum est, melius est, difficile est, ūtilius est, and some others; as,— longum est ea dīcere, it would be tedious to tell that; difficile est omnia persequī, it would be difficult to enumerate everything.

The Subjunctive in Independent Sentences.

- 272. The Subjunctive is used in Independent Sentences to express something—
 - I. As willed Volitive Subjunctive;
 - 2. As desired Optative Subjunctive;
 - 3. Conceived of as possible Potential Subjunctive.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

273. The Volitive Subjunctive represents the action as willed. It always implies authority on the part of the speaker, and has the following varieties:—

A. HORTATORY SUBJUNCTIVE.

274. The Hortatory Subjunctive expresses an exhortation. This use is confined to the first person plural, of the Present. The negative is no. Thus:—

eāmus, let us go; amēmus patriam, let us love our country; nē dēspērēmus, let us not despair.

B. JUSSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

- 275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a command. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used—
- Most frequently in the third singular and third plural; as,—dīcat, let him tell;
 dīcant, let them tell;
 impiī nē plācāre audeant deōs, let not the wicked dare to appease the gods.
 - 2. Less frequently in the second person; as, -

isto bono ūtāre, use that advantage; modestē vīvās, live temperately.

C. PROHIBITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

276. The Subjunctive is used in the second person singular and plural, with nē, to express a prohibition. As regards the use of tenses, the Perfect seems to be used where there is special excitement or emotion, otherwise the Present; as,—

në repügnëtis, do not resist! tü vërö istam në reliqueris, DON'T YOU LEAVE HER!

- a. Neither of these constructions is frequent in classical prose.
- b. The distinction sometimes drawn between the Present and the Perfect in this construction, restricting the former to general prohibitions, and the latter to those addressed to a definite second person, will not hold.
- c. A commoner method of expressing a prohibition is by the use of noll (nollte) with a following infinitive, or by cave ne with the Subjunctive; as,—

nölī hōc facere, don't do this (lit. be unwilling to do)! nölīte mentīrī, do not lie!

cave ne haec facias, do not do this (lit. take care lest you do).

D. DELIBERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

277. The Deliberative Subjunctive is used in questions and exclamations implying doubt or indignation. The

Present is used referring to present time, the Imperfect referring to past. The negative is non. Thus:—

quid faciam, what shall I do?
ego redeam, shall I go back?
quid facerem, what was I to do?
hunc ego non diligam, shall I not cherish this man?

a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in character, and do not expect an answer.

E. CONCESSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

278. The Subjunctive is used to indicate something as granted or conceded for the sake of argument. The Present is used for present time, the Perfect regularly for past. The negative is no. Thus:—

sit hoc verum, granting that this is true (lit. let this be true);

ne sit summum malum dolor, malum certe est, granting that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil;

fuerit malus cīvis aliīs, tibi quando esse coepit, granting that he was a bad citizen to others, when did he begin to be so toward you?

OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

- 279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of wishing. The negative is regularly no. The use of tenses is as follows:—
- 1. The Present Tense, often accompanied by utinam, is used where the wish is conceived of as possible.

dI istaec prohibeant, may the gods prevent that! falsus utinam vātēs sim, oh that I may be a false prophet! nē veniant, may they not come!

2. The Imperfect expresses, in the form of a wish, the regret that something is not so now; the Pluperfect that something was not so in the past. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are regularly accompanied by utinam; as,—

utinam istud ex animō dīcerēs, would that you were saying that in earnest, (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest);

Pēlīdēs utinam vītāsset Apollinis arcūs, would that Achilles had escaped the bow of Apollo;

utinam në natus essem, would that I had not been born.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

- **280.** The Potential Subjunctive expresses a possibility. The negative is non. The following uses are to be noted:—
- 1. The Potential Subjunctive may designate a mere objective possibility (English auxiliary may). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. The subject is generally an indefinite pronoun. Thus:—

dīcat aliquis, some one may say; dīxerit aliquis, some one may say.

- a. This construction is by no means frequent, and is confined mainly to a few phrases like those given as examples.
- 2. The Potential Subjunctive may represent something as contingent upon a condition expressed or understood (English auxiliary should, would). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

fortunam citius reperiās quam retineās, one would more quickly find Fortune than keep it (i.e. if one should make the trial); paene dīcam, I should almost say (i.e. if I were to express an opinion); crēdiderim, I should believe.

- a. Here belongs the use of velim, mālim, nölim, as softened forms of statement for volö, mālö, nölö. Thus:— velim mihi ignöscās, I wish you would forgive me; nölim putēs mē jocārī, I don't want you to think I'm joking.
- b. When the condition is expressed, we get one of the regular types of Conditional Sentences (see § 303); as,—dies deficiat, sI coner enumerare causas, time would fail if I should attempt to enumerate the reasons.
- 3. In the Imperfect the Potential occurs in the second person singular (with *indefinite* force; § 356, 3) of a few verbs, chiefly the following:—

orēderēs, one might have believed; vidērēs, cernerēs, one might have seen, perceived;

putārēs, one might have thought.

4. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary-to-fact type (see § 304) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis such an Apodosis sometimes stands alone, particularly vellem, nöllem, mällem; as,—

vellem id quidem, I would wish that (i.e. were I bold enough).

The Imperative.

281. The Imperative is used in commands, admonitions, and entreaties (negative nē); as,—

ëgredere ex urbe, depart from the city; mihi ignõsce, pardon me; valē, farewell.

- 1. The Present is the tense of the *Imperative* most commonly used, but the Future is employed
 - a) Where there is a distinct reference to future time, especially in the apodosis of conditional sentences; as,
 - rem vöbīs proponam; vos eam penditote, I will lay the matter before you; do you (then) consider it;
 - sī bene disputābit, tribuitō litterīs Graecīs, if he shall speak well, attribute it to Greek literature.
 - b) In laws, treaties, wills, maxims, etc.; as,
 - consules summum jus habento, the consuls shall have supreme power;
 - hominem mortuom in urbe në sepelītō, no one shall bury a dead body in the city;
 - amīoitia rēgī Antiochō cum populō Rōmānō hīs lēgibus et condicionibus esto, let there be peace between Antiochus and the Roman people on the following terms and conditions.
 - quartae esto partis Marcus heres, let Marcus be heir to a fourth (of the property);
 - ignõscitõ saepe alterī, numquam tibi, forgive your neighbor often, yourself never.
- 2. Except with the Future Imperative the negative is not used in classical prose. Prohibitions are regularly expressed in other ways. See \S 276, c.
- 3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by quin (why not?) are often equivalent to an Imperative or to the Hortatory Subjunctive; as,—
- quin abis, go away! (lit. why don't you go away?)
- quin vocem continetis, keep still! (lit. why don't you stop your voices?)
- quin equos conscendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. why do we not mount our horses?)

MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Clauses of Purpose.

- 282. I. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by ut (uti), quō (that, in order that), nō (in order that not, lest), and stand in the Subjunctive; as,—
- edimus, ut vīvāmus, we eat that we may live.
- adjūtā mē quō hōc sīat facilius, help me, in order that this may be done more easily.
- portās clausit, nē quam oppidānī injūriam acciperent, he closed the gates, lest the townspeople should receive any injury.
 - a. Quō, as a rule, is employed only when the purpose clause contains a comparative or a comparative idea. Occasional exceptions occur; as,
 - haec faciunt quo Chremetem absterreant, they are doing this in order to frighten Chremes.
 - b. Ut nē is sometimes found, as more emphatic than nē. Thus:
 - ut no quid neglegenter agamus, in order that we may not do anything carelessly.
 - c. Ut non (for no) is used where the negation belongs to some single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole. Thus:
 - ut non ejectus ad alienos, sed invitatus ad tuos videare, that you may seem not driven out among strangers, but invited to your own friends.
 - d. To say 'and that not' or 'or that not,' the Latin regularly uses nove (neu); as,
 - ut earum rerum vis minueretur, neu ponti nocerent, that the violence of these things might be lessened, and that they might not harm the bridge;
 - profügit, në caperëtur nëve interficerëtur, he fled, that he might not be captured or killed.
 - e. But neque (for neve) is sometimes used in the second clause when ut stands in the first, and, after the Augustan era, even when the first clause is introduced by ne.

- 2. A Relative Pronoun (quī) or Adverb (ubi, unde, quō) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause; as,—
- Helvētiī lēgātōs mittunt, quī dīcerent, the Helvetii sent envoys to say (lit. who should say);
- haec habul, de senectute quae dicerem, I had these things to say about old age;
- non habebat quo fugeret, he had no place to which to flee (lit. whither he might flee).
 - a. Qui in such clauses is equivalent to ut is, ut ego, etc.; ubi to ut ibi; unde to ut inde; quo to ut eo.
- 3. Relative clauses of purpose follow **dīgnus**, **indīgnus**, and **idōneus**; as,—
- idôneus fuit nēmō quem imitārēre, there was no one suitable for you to imitate (cf. nēmō fuit quem imitārēre, there was no one to imitate);
- dignus est qui aliquando imperet, he is worthy to rule sometime.
- 4. Purpose clauses often depend upon something to be supplied from the context instead of upon the principal verb of their own sentences; as,—
- ut hace omnia omittam, abiimus, to pass over all this (I will say that) we departed.

Clauses of Characteristic.

- 283. 1. A relative clause used to express an essential quality or characteristic of an antecedent not otherwise defined is called a Clause of Characteristic, and stands in the Subjunctive; as,—
- multa sunt, quae mentem acuant, there are many things which sharpen the wits.

Clauses of Characteristic are opposed to those relative clauses which are used merely to state or assume some fact about an antecedent already defined, and which therefore take the Indicative; as,—

Catō, senex jūcundus, quī Sapiēns appellātus est, Cato, a delightful old man, who was called 'The Wise.'

The Clause of Characteristic implies 'a man of the sort that does something'; the Indicative relative clause implies 'a man who actually does something.'

- 2. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, est quī; sunt quī; nēmō est quī; nūllus est quī; ūnus est quī; sōlus est quī; quis est quī; is quī; etc. Thus:—
- sunt qui dicant, there are (some) who say;
- nēmō est quī putet, there is nobody who thinks;
- sapientia est una quae maestitiam pellat, philosophy is the only thing that drives away sorrow;
- quae cīvitās est quae non evertī possit, what state is there that cannot be overthrown?
- non is sum qui improbos laudem, I am not the sort of man that praises the wicked.
 - Sometimes (very rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the clause of characteristic is used after comparatives; as,
 - non longius hostes aberant quam quo telum adigi posset, the enemy were not too far off for a dart to reach them (lit. further off than [a point] to which a dart could be cast).
- 3. The Clause of Characteristic often conveys an accessory notion of cause (since) or opposition (although). Thus:—
 - a) Cause. The relative is then frequently accompanied by ut, quippe, utpote; as,
 - ō fortunăte adulēscēns, qui tuae virtutis Homērum praeconem invēneris, O fortunate man, since you have found a Homer as the herald of your valor;
 - ut qui optimo jure eam provinciam obtinuerit, since he held that province by excellent right.
 - b) Opposition: -
 - egomet quī sērō Graecās litterās attigissem, tamen complūrēs diēs Athēnīs commorātus sum, I, although I had taken up Greek literature late in life, nevertheless tarried several days at Athens.
- 4. Clauses of Characteristic may also be introduced by quin = qui (quae, quod) non; as,—
- nēmō est quīn saepe audierit, there is no one who has not often heard;
- nemo fuit militum quin vulnerārētur, there was no one of the soldiers who was not wounded.
- 5. Under Clauses of Characteristic belong also phrases of the type: quod sciam, so far as I know; quod audierim, so far as I have heard.

Clauses of Result.

- 284. I. Clauses of Result are usually introduced by ut (that, so that), negative ut non (so that not), and take the Subjunctive. The main clause often contains tantus, talis, tot, is (= talis), tam, or some similar word. Thus:—
- quis tam dēmēns est ut suā voluntāte maereat, who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?
- Siciliam ita vāstāvit ut restituī in antīquum statum non possit, he has so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition:
- mons altissimus impendebat, ut facile perpauci prohibēre possent, a very high mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily stop them.
- 2. A Result Clause is often introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb, quī (= ut is), quō (= ut eō), etc.; as,—
- nēmō est tam senex quī sē annum nōn putet posse vīvere, nobody is so old as not to think he will live a year;
- habētis eum consulem qui pārēre vestrīs dēcrētis non dubitet, you have a consul such as does not hesitate to obey your decrees.
 - a. These relative clauses of result are a development of the Clause of Characteristic, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the two constructions. It is best to class the relative clause as one of Characteristic, unless the result idea is clear and unmistakable.
 - 3. Result clauses may also be introduced by quin = ut non; as,—
- nihil tam difficile est quIn quaerendō invēstīgārī possit, nothing is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching.
- nemo est tam fortis quin rei novitate perturbetur, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

Note phrases of the type: --

fier I non potest quin scribam, facere non possum quin scribam, I cannot avoid writing.

- 4. Note the use of quam ut (sometimes quam alone) to denote Result after comparatives; as,—
- urbs erat munitior quam ut primo impetu capi posset, the city was too strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack (lit. more strongly fortified than [so] that it could be taken, etc.).

Causal Clauses.

- 285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:—
 - 1. Quod, quia, quoniam.
 - 2. Cum.
 - 3. Quando.
 - 286. The use of moods is as follows:—
- I. Quod, quia, quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is that of the writer or speaker; they take the Subjunctive when the reason is viewed as that of another. Thus:—
- Parthōs timeō quod diffīdō cōpiīs nostrīs, I fear the Parthians, because I distrust our troops.
- Themistoclēs, quia non tūtus erat, Corcyram dēmigrāvit, Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Corcyra.
- neque mē vīxisse paenitet, quoniam bene vīxī, I do not regret having lived, since I have lived well.
- Socrates accusatus est quod corrumperet juventutem, Socrates was arraigned on the ground that he was corrupting the young.

 (Here the reason is not that of the writer but of the accuser. Hence the Subjunctive.)
- Aeduī Caesarī grātiās ēgērunt, quod sē perīculō līberāvisset, the Aedui thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger. (The reason of the Aedui.)
- quoniam Miltiades dicere non posset, verba pro eo fecit Tisagoras, since Miltiades could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him. (The reason of Tisagoras.)
- noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs, quod somnum capere non posset, Themistocles used to walk at night because (as he said) he couldn't sleep.
 - a. Verbs of thinking and saying often stand in the Subjunctive in causal clauses as though the act of thinking or saying, and not the contents of the thought or language, constituted the reason. Thus:—
 - Bellovacī suum numerum non complēvērunt, quod sē suo nomine cum Romānīs bellum gestūros dīcerent, the Bellovaci did not furnish their complement, be-

- cause they said they were going to wage war with the Romans on their own account.
- b. Non quod, non quo (by attraction for non eo quod), non quia, not that, not because; and non quod non, non quo non, non quo that . . . not; not because . . . not; not but what, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as,
 - id fēcī, non quod vos hanc dēfēnsionem dēsīderāre arbitrārer, sed ut omnēs intellegerent, this I did, not because I thought you needed this defense, but that all might perceive;
 - Crasso commendationem non sum pollicitus, non quin eam valituram apud to arbitrarer, sed egère mihi commendatione non videbatur, I did not promise a recommendation to Crassus, not that I did not think it would have weight with you, but because he did not seem to me to need recommendation.
- c. But clauses introduced by **non quod**, **non quia** take the Indicative if they state a fact, even though that fact is denied to be the reason for something; as,
 - hoc ita sentio, non quia sum ipse augur, sed quia sic existimare nos est necesse, this I think, not because I am myself an augur (which I really am), but because it is necessary for us to think so.
- 2. Cum causal regularly takes the Subjunctive; as,—quae cum ita sint, since this is so; cum sīs mortālis, quae mortālia sunt, cūrā, since you are mortal,
- care for what is mortal.
 - a. Note the phrase cum praesertim (praesertim cum), especially since; as,—
 - Aeduos accusat, praesertim cum eorum precibus adductus bellum susceperit, he blamed the Aedui, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties.
- 3. Quando (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as,—
- id omitto, quando vobis ita placet, I pass over that, since you so wish.

- Temporal Clauses introduced by Postquam, Ut, Ubi, Simul ac. etc.
- 287. I. Postquam (posteāquam), after; ut, ubi, when; cum prīmum, simul, simul ac (simul atque), as soon as, when used to refer to a single occurrence regularly take the Perfect Indicative; as,—
- Epamīnondās postquam audīvit vīcisse Boeotios, 'Satis' inquit 'vīxī,' Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boeotians had conquered, said, 'I have lived enough.'
- id ut audīvit, Coroÿram dēmigrāvit, when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra;
- Caesar cum primum potuit, ad exercitum contendit, Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army;
- ubi de Caesaris adventu certiores factī sunt, legatos ad eum mittunt, when they were informed of Caesar's arrival, they sent envoys to him.
 - a. The Historical Present may take the place of the Perfect in this construction.
- 2. To denote the repeated occurrence of an act, ut, ubi, simul atque, as often as, when following an historical tense, take the Pluperfect Indicative (compare §§ 288, 3; 302, 3); as,—
- ut quisque Verris animum offenderat, in lautumiäs statim coniciebatur, whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone-quarry;
- hostes, ubi aliquos egredientes conspexerant, adoriebantur, whenever the enemy had seen any men disembarking, they attacked them.
 - a. In Livy and succeeding historians the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used to denote this repeated occurrence of an act ('Indefinite Frequency'); as,
 - id ubi dīxisset, hastam mittēbat, whenever he had said that, he hurled a spear.
- 3. Occasionally the above conjunctions are followed by the Pluperfect Indicative of a single occurrence. This is regularly the case with **postquam** in expressions denoting a definite interval of time (days, months, years, etc.), such as **post tertium annum quam**, tribus post annis quam. Thus:—

- paucīs post diēbus quam Lūcā discesserat, ad Sardiniam vēnit, a few days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sardinia;
- postquam occupătae Syrācūsae erant, profectus est Carthāginem, after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage.
- 4. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs to denote a continued state; as,—
- postquam Romam adventabant, senatus consultus est, after they were on the march towards Rome, the Senate was consulted;
- postquam structi utrimque stabant, after they had been drawn up on both sides and were in position.
- 5. Rarely postquam, posteāquam, following the analogy of cum, take the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses; as,—
- posteaquam sumptuosa fieri funera coepissent, lege sublata sunt, after funerals had begun to be elaborate, they were done away with by law.

Temporal Clauses introduced by Cum.

- A. Cum referring to the Past.
- 288. 1. Cum, when referring to the past, takes —
- A. The Indicative (Imperfect, Historical Perfect, or Pluperfect) to denote the point of time at which something occurs.
- B. The Subjunctive (Imperfect or Pluperfect) to denote the situation or circumstances under which something occurs.

Examples: -

INDICATIVE.

- an tum eras consul, cum in Palatio mea domus ardebat, or were you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine?
- crēdo tum cum Sicilia florēbat opibus et copils māgna artificia fuisse in eā īnsulā, I believe that at the time when Sicily was powerful in riches and resources there were great crafts in that island:
- eo tempore paruit cum parere necesse erat, he obeyed at the time when it was necessary to obey;
- illo die, cum est lata lex de me, on that day when the law concerning me was passed.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

- Lysander cum vellet Lycurgi lögös commütäre, prohibitus est, when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented;
- Pythagoras cum in geometria quiddam novi invenisset, Müsis bovem immolasse dicitur, when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geometry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses.
 - a. Note that the Indicative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has tum, eō diē, eō annō, eō tempore or some similar correlative of the cum. Sometimes it depends entirely upon the point of view of the writer whether he shall employ the Indicative or Subjunctive.
- 2. When the logical order of the clauses is inverted, we find cum with the Perfect Indicative or Historical Present, in the sense of when, when suddenly. The main clause in such cases often has jam, vix, aegrē, nondum; as,—
- jam Galli ex oppido fugere apparabant, cum matres familiae repente procurrerunt, the Gauls were already preparing to flee, when suddenly the matrons rushed forth (logically, the matrons rushed forth as the Gauls were preparing to flee);
- Trēvirī Labienum adorīrī parābant, cum duās legiones venisse cognoscunt, the Treviri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived.
- 3. To denote a recurring action in the past cum is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare §§ 287, 2; 302, 3); as,—
- cum ad aliquod oppidum vēnerat, eādem lectīcā ad cubiculum dēferēbātur, whenever he had arrived at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room;
- cum equitatus noster se in agros ejecerat, essedarios ex silvis emittebat, whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he would send his charioteers out from the woods.
 - a. Sometimes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as,—saepe cum aliquem vidēret minus bene vestītum, suum amiculum dedit, often, whenever he saw some one more poorly clothed, he gave him his own mantle;
 - cum procucurrissent, Numidae effugiobant, as often as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away.

This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.

- B. Cum referring to the Present or Future.
- 289. When cum refers to the Present or Future it regularly takes the Indicative; as,—
- tum tua rēs agitur, pariēs cum proximus ārdet, your own interests are at stake when your neighbor's house is burning; cum vidēbis, tum sciēs, when you see, then you will know.
 - a. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a recurring action; as,
 - stabilitas amicitiae confirmari potest, cum homines cupidinibus imperabunt, firm friendship can be established whenever men shall control their desires.

C. OTHER USES OF Cum.

- 290. 1. Cum Explicative. Cum, with the Indicative, is sometimes used to indicate the identity of one act with another; as,—cum tacent, clamant, their silence is a shout (lit. when they are silent, they shout).
- 2. Cum . . . tum. When cum . . . tum mean both . . . and, the cum-clause is in the Indicative; but when cum has the force of while, though, it may take the Subjunctive; as,—
- cum te semper dilexerim, tum tuis factis incensus sum, while I have always loved you, at the same time I am incensed at your conduct.

Clauses introduced by Antequam and Priusquam.

A. WITH THE INDICATIVE.

- 291. Antequam and priusquam (often written ante . . . quam, prius . . . quam) take the Indicative to denote an actual fact.
- Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect; as,—
 prius respondēs quam rogō, you answer before I ask;
 nihil contrā disputābō priusquam dīxerit, I will say nothing in opposition, before he speaks.
- 2. Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as,—non prius jugulandī fīnis fuit, quam Sulla omnēs suos dīvitiss explēvit, there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all his henchmen with wealth.

B. WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

- 292. Antequam and priusquam take the Subjunctive to denote an act as anticipated.
 - 1. Thus the Subjunctive may denote
 - a) An act in preparation for which the main act takes place; as, priusquam dimicarent, foedus ictum est, i.e. in anticipation of the fight, a treaty was struck.

By an extension of this usage, the Subjunctive is sometimes used of general truths, where the anticipatory notion has faded out; as,—

tempestas minatur antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.

- b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as, priusquam tēlum adicī posset, omnis aciēs terga vertit, before a spear could be hurled, the whole army fled.
- c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as, animum omittunt priusquam loco demigrent, they die rather than quit their post.
- 2. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, especially by post-Augustan writers, where the notion of anticipation has practically vanished; as,—
- sol antequam se abderet fugientem vidit Antonium, the sun before it set saw Antony fleeing.

Clauses introduced by Dum, Donec, Quoad.

- 293. I. Dum, while, regularly takes the Indicative of the Historical Present; as,—
- Alexander, dum inter prīmorēs pūgnat, sagittā ictus est, Alexander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow; dum haec geruntur, in fīnēs Venellorum pervēnit, while these things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Venelli.
- II. Dum, donec, and quoad, as long as, take the Indicative; as,—
- dum anima est, spes est, as long as there is life, there is hope;
- Lacedaemoniōrum gēns fortis fuit, dum Lycūrgī lēgēs vigēbant, the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force;
- Cato, quoad vixit, virtutum laude crovit, Cato, as long as he lived, increased in the fame of his virtues.

III. Dum, donec, and quoad, until, take:-

- I. The Indicative, to denote an actual event; as,—
 donec rediit, fuit silentium, there was silence till he came;
 ferrum in corpore retinuit, quoad renuntiatum est Boeotios
 vicisse, he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that
 the Boeotians had conquered.
 - a. In Livy and subsequent historians dum and donec in this sense often take the Subjunctive instead of the Indicative; as,— trepidātionis aliquantum ēdēbant, donec timor quiētem fēcisset, they showed some trepidation, until fear produced quiet.
- 2. The Subjunctive, to denote anticipation or expectancy; as,—
- exspectāvit Caesar dum nāvēs convenīrent, Caesar waited for the ships to assemble;

dum hostes veniant, morabor, I shall wait for the enemy to come.

Substantive Clauses.

294. A Substantive Clause is one which as a whole serves as the Subject or Object of a verb, or denotes some other case relation.

A. Substantive Clauses developed from the Volitive.

- 295. These are generally used as object-clauses, and occur with the following classes of verbs:—
- 1. With verbs signifying to admonish, request, command, urge, persuade, induce, 1 etc. (conjunctions ut, no); as, —
- postulo ut fiat, I demand that it be done (dependent form of the ussive fiat, let it be done!);

ōrat, nē abeās, he begs that you will not go away;

mīlitēs cohortātus est ut hostium impetum sustinērent, he exhorted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy;

Helvētiīs persuāsit ut exīrent, he persuaded the Helvetii to march forth.

a. Jubeo, command, order, regularly takes the Infinitive.

¹ Especially: moneō, admoneō; rogō, ōrō, petō, postulō, precor, flāgitō; mandō, imperō, praecipiō; suādeō, hortor, cohortor; persuādeō, impellō.

- 2. With verbs signifying to grant, concede, permit, allow, etc. (conjunction ut); as,—
- huic concēdō ut ea praetereat, I allow him to pass that by (dependent form of the Jussive ea praetereat, let him pass that by!);
- consuli permissum est ut duas legiones scriberet, the consul was permitted to enroll two legions.
- 3. With verbs of hindering, preventing,² etc. (conjunctions ne, quominus, quin); as,—
- nē lūstrum perficeret, mors prohibuit, death prevented him from finishing the lustrum (dependent form after past tense of nē lūstrum perficiat, let him not finish, etc.);
- prohibuit quōminus in unum colrent, he prevented them from coming together;
- nec, quin érumperet, prohibéri poterat, nor could he be prevented from rushing forth.
 - a. Quin is used only when the verb of hindering is accompanied by a negative, or stands in a question implying a negative; it is not necessarily used even then.

Clauses introduced by **quōminus** and **quīn** are probably developed from Purpose Clauses.

- 4. With verbs of deciding, resolving, * etc. (conjunctions ut, no); as,—
- constitueram ut pridie Idus Aquini manerem, I had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12th;
- decrevit senatus ut Opimius videret, the Senate decreed that Opimius should see to it;
- convēnit ut finīs castrīs miscērentur, it was agreed that they should be united in one camp.
 - 5. With verbs of striving,4 etc. (conjunctions ut, ne); as,—
- laborābat ut reliquās cīvitātēs adjungeret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him;
- contendit ne ea enuntiarentur, he strove that those things should not be reported.
 - a. Conor, try, always takes the Infinitive.

NOTE.—Verbs of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poetry.

¹ Especially: permitto, concedo, non patior.

² Especially: prohibeō, impediō, dēterreō.

⁸ Especially: constituo, decerno, censeo, placuit, convenit, paciscor.

⁴ Especially: laboro, do operam, id ago, contendo, impetro.

6. With a few other expressions, such as necesse est, reliquum est, sequitur, licet, oportet; as,—

reliquum est ut doceam, it remains for me to show; licet redeās, you may return; oportet loquāmur, we must speak.

On licet and oportet without ut, see paragraph 8.

- 7. Here also belong phrases of the type: nulla causa est cur, quare, quare, quare, quare, etc.; nihil est cur, etc.; as,—
- nülla causa est cür timeam, there is no reason why I should fear (originally Deliberative: why should I fear? There's no reason); non est quare timeam, there is no reason why I should fear; nihil est quan dacam, there is no reason why I should not say.
- 8. Many of the above classes of verbs at times take the simple Subjunctive without ut. In such cases we must not recognize any omission of ut, but simply an earlier form of expression which existed before the ut-clause arose. This is regularly the case with necesse est, licet, and oportet; see 6. Other examples are:—

eos hoc moneo desinant, I warn them to stop; huic imperat adeat cīvitātēs, he orders him to visit the states.

- B. Substantive Clauses developed from the Optative.
- 296. Here belong clauses: -
- With verbs of wishing, desiring, especially cupiō, optō, volō, mālō (conjunctions ut, nē); as,—
- optō ut in hōc jūdiciō nēmō improbus reperiātur, I hope that in this court no bad man may be found (here ut reperiātur represents a simple optative of direct statement, viz. reperiātur, may no bad man be found!);
- cupiō në veniat, I desire that he may not come.
 - a. The simple Subjunctive (without ut) sometimes occurs with verbs of this class. (See § 295, 8.) Examples are: vellem scriberes, I could wish you were writing; vellem scripsisset, I could wish he had written.
- 2. With verbs of fearing (timeo, metuo, vereor). Here no means that, lest, and ut means that not; as,—
- timeō nē veniat, I fear that he will come (originally: may he not come!

 I'm afraid [he will]);
- timeō ut veniat, I fear that he will not come (originally: may he come I'm afraid [he won't]).

- a. No non sometimes occurs instead of ut, especially where the verb of fearing has a negative, or where the writer desires to emphasize some particular word in the dependent clause; as,
 - non vereor no hoc non flat, I am not afraid that this will not happen;
 - vereor në exercitum firmum habëre non possit, I fear that he is unable (non possit) to have a strong army.

C. Substantive Clauses of Result.

- 297. Substantive Clauses of Result (introduced by ut, ut non) are a development of pure Result clauses, and occur with the following classes of words:—
- 1. As object clauses after verbs of doing, accomplishing (especially facio, efficio, conficio). Thus:—
- gravitās morbī facit ut medicīnā egeāmus, the severity of disease makes us need medicine.
- 2. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly fit, efficitur, accidit, ëvenit, contingit, accēdit, fierī potest, fore, sequitur, relinquitur. Thus:—
- ex quō efficitur, ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the greatest good;
- ita fit, ut nomo esse possit beatus, thus it happens that no one can be happy;
- accedebat ut naves deessent, another thing was the lack of ships (lit. it was added that ships were lacking).
- 3. As predicate or appositive after expressions like jūs est, mos est, consuētūdo est; also after neuter pronouns, hoc, illud, etc. Thus:—
- est mos hominum ut nolint eundem pluribus rebus excellere, it is the way of men not to wish the same person to excel in many things.

D. Substantive Clauses introduced by Quīn.

298. Substantive Clauses introduced by quīn (used sometimes as subject, sometimes as object) occur after negative and interrogative expressions of *doubt*, *omission*, and the like, particularly after non dubito, *I* do not doubt; quis

dubitat, who doubts?; non (haud) dubium est, there is no doubt. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples:—

- quis dubitat quIn in virtute divitiae sint, who doubts that in virtue there are riches?
- non dubium erat quin venturus esset, there was no doubt that he was about to come.
 - a. In Nepos, Livy, and post-Augustan writers an Infinitive sometimes takes the place of the quin-clause after non dubito; as, non dubitamus inventos esse, we do not doubt that men were found.
 - b. Non dubito, I do not hesitate, is regularly followed by the Infinitive, though sometimes by a quin-clause.

E. Substantive Clauses introduced by Quod.

- 299. I. Quod, the fact that, that, introduces Substantive Clauses in the Indicative. This construction occurs especially
 - a) In apposition with a preceding demonstrative, as hoc, id, illud, illa, ex eo, inde, etc. Thus:
 - illud est admīrātione dīgnum, quod captīvos retinendos cēnsuit, this is especially worthy of admiration, that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept;
 - hoc uno praestamus vel maxime feris, quod colloquimur inter nos, in this one respect are we especially superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other.
 - b) After bene fit, bene accidit, male fit, bene facere, etc.; as
 - bene mihi accidit, quod mittor ad mortem, it is well for me that I am sent to death;
 - bene fēcistī quod mānsistī, you did well in remaining.
- 2. Quod at the beginning of the sentence sometimes has the force of as regards the fact that. Thus:—
- quod multitūdinem Germānorum in Galliam trādūco, id meī mūniendī causā facio, as regards the fact that I am transporting a multitude of Germans into Gaul, I am doing it for the sake of strengthening myself;
- quod me Agamemnona aemulārī putās, falleris, as regards your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken.

Indirect Questions.

- **300.** I. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of asking, inquiring, telling and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive. Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced
 - a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as,
 - dīc mihi ubi fueris, quid fēceris, tell me where you were, what you did;
 - oculis jūdicārī non potest in utram partem fluat Arar, it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar flows;
 - bis bīna quot essent, nesciēbat, he did not know how many two times two were.

NOTE. — Care should be taken to distinguish Indirect Questions from Relative Clauses. The difference between the two appears clearly in the following:—

effugere nēmō id potest quod futūrum est, no one can escape what is destined to come to pass; but

- saepe autem ne ütile quidem est scIre quid futürum sit, but often it is not even useful to know what is coming to pass.
 - b) By num or -ne, without distinction of meaning; as, -
 - Epamīnondās quaesīvīt num salvus esset clipeus, or salvusne esset clipeus, Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe;
 - disputatur num interire virtus in homine possit, the question is raised whether virtue can die in a man;
 - ex Socrate quaesitum est nonne Archelaum beatum putaret, the question was asked of Socrates whether he did not think Archelaus happy.

NOTE. — Nonne in Indirect Questions occurs only after quaero, as in the last example above.

2. Often the Indirect Question represents a Deliberative Subjunctive of the direct discourse; as, —

nesciō quid faciam, I do not know what to do. (Direct: quid faciam, what shall I do!)

¹ Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as considera quam variae sint hominum cupidines, consider how varied are the desires of men. (Direct: quam variae sunt hominum cupidines!)

3. After verbs of *expectation* and *endeavor* (exspecto, conor, experior, tempto) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by sī; as,—

conantur si perrumpere possint, they try whether they can break through.

- a. Sometimes the governing verb is omitted; as,—
 pergit ad proximam spēluncam sī forte eō vēstīgia ferrent, he proceeded to the nearest cave (to see) if the tracks led
 thither.
- 4. Indirect Double Questions are introduced in the main by the same particles as direct double questions (§ 162, 4); viz.:—

utrum . . . an;
-ne an;
-me an;
-me ne.

Examples: -

quaerō utrum vērum an falsum sit, quaerō vērumne an falsum sit, quaerō vērum an falsum sit, quaerō vērum falsumne sit.

I ask whether it is true or false?

- a. 'Or not' in the second member of a double question is ordinarily expressed by necne, less frequently by an non; as, —
 dI utrum sint necne, quaeritur, it is asked whether there are gods or not.
- 5. Haud scio an, nescio an, by omission of the first member of the double question, occur with the Subjunctive in the sense: I am inclined to think, probably, perhaps; as,—

haud scio an hoc verum sit, I am inclined to think this is true.

6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in Indirect Questions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences (§ 164) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or condition), usually introduced by sī, nisi, or sīn, and the Apodosis (or conclusion). We distinguish the following types of Conditional Sentences:—

First Type. — Nothing Implied as to the Reality of the Supposed Case.

- 302. 1. Here we regularly have the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis. Any tense may be used; as,—
- sī hōc crēdis, errās, if you believe this, you are mistaken;
- nātūram sī sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, if we follow Nature, we shall never go astray;
- sī hōc dīxistī, errāstī, if you said this, you were in error.
- 2. Sometimes the Protasis takes the Indefinite Second Person Singular (§ 356, 3) of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with the force of the Indicative; as,—
- memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceas, memory grows weak unless you exercise it.
- 3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare §§ 287, 2; 288, 3); as,—
- sI quis equitum déciderat, pedités circumsistébant, if any one of the horsemen fell, the foot-soldiers gathered about him.
 - a. Instead of the Indicative, Livy and subsequent writers employ the Subjunctive of the Historical tenses in the Protasis to denote repeated action; as,
 - si dicendo quis diem eximeret, if (ever) anybody consumed a day in pleading; si quando adsidoret, if ever he sat by.
- 4. Where the sense demands it the Apodosis in conditional sentences of the First Type may be an Imperative or one of the Independent Subjunctives (Hortatory, Deliberative, etc.); as,—
- sī hōc crēditis, tacēte, if you believe this, be silent; sī hōc crēdimus, taceāmus, if we believe this, let us keep silent.

Second Type. — Supposed Case represented as Contingent.

- 303. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive (of the Present or Perfect tense) in both Protasis and Apodosis; as,—
- sī hōc dīcas, errēs, if you should say this, you would be missi hōc dīxeris, errāveris, taken.
- sī velim Hannibalis proelia omnia dēscrībere, diēs mē dēficiat, if I should wish to describe all the battles of Hannibal, time would fail me;

- mentiar, si negem, I should lie, if I should deny it;
- hace sī tēcum patria loquātur, nonne impetrāre dēbeat, if your country should plead thus with you, would she not deserve to obtain her request?
 - a. The Subjunctive in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of this type is of the Potential variety.
 - b. Sometimes we find the Indicative in the Apodosis of sentences of the Second Type, where the writer wishes to assert the consummation of a result more positively; as,
 - aliter si faciat, nullam habet auctoritatem, if he should do otherwise, he has no authority.

Third Type. — Supposed Case represented as Contrary to Fact.

- 304. I. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive in both Protasis and Apodosis, the Imperfect referring to present time, and the Pluperfect referring to past; as,—
- sī amīcī meī adessent, opis non indigērem, if my friends were here, I should not lack assistance;
- sī hōc dīxissēs, errāssēs, if you had said this, you would have erred;
- sapientia non expeteretur, sī nihil efficeret, philosophy would not be desired, if it accomplished nothing;
- consilium, ratio, sententia nisi essent in senibus, non summum consilium mājores nostrī appellāssent senātum, unless deliberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ancestors would not have called their highest deliberative body a senate.
- 2. Sometimes the Imperfect Subjunctive is found referring to the past, especially to denote a continued act, or a state of things still existing; as,—
- Laelius, Furius, Catō, sī nihil litterīs adjuvārentur, numquam sē ad eārum studium contulissent, Laelius, Furius, and Cato would never have devoted themselves to the study of letters, unless they had been (constantly) helped by them;
- num igitur sī ad centēsimum annum vīxisset, senectūtis eum suae paenitēret, if he had lived to his hundredth year, would he have regretted (and now be regretting) his old age?

- 3. The Apodosis in conditional sentences of this type sometimes stands in the Indicative (Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect), viz.
 - a) Frequently in expressions of ability, obligation, or necessity; as,
 - nisi felicitas in socordiam vertisset, exuere jugum potuerunt, unless their prosperity had turned to folly, they could have thrown off the yoke;

NOTE. — In sentences of this type, however, it is not the *possibility* that is represented as contrary-to-fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is **et exuissent** understood (and they would have shaken it off). When the possibility itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used.

- eum patris loco colere debebas, si ulla in te pietas esset, you ought to revere him as a father, if you had any sense of devotion.
- b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as,
 - sī Pompējus occīsus esset, fuistisne ad arma itūrī, if

 Pompey had been slain, would you have proceeded to

 arms?
 - sī ūnum diem morātī essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delayed one day, you would all have had to die.

Protasis expressed without SI.

- **305.** I. The Protasis is not always expressed by a clause with **sī**, but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context; as, —
- alioqui haec non scriberentur, otherwise (i.e. if matters were otherwise) these things would not be written;
- non potestis, voluptate omnia dirigentes, retinere virtutem, you cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to pleasure.
- 2. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive serves as Protasis. Thus:—
- crās petito, dabitur, if you ask to-morrow, it shall be given you (lit. ask to-morrow, etc.);
- hase reputent, videbunt, if they consider this, they will see (lit. let them consider, etc.);
- cave have facias, beware not to do this! (Originally: do this! then beware! i.e. if you do it, beware! Hence beware not to do it!)

Use of Nisi, Sī Non, Sīn.

- **306.** 1. Nisi, unless, negatives the entire protasis; sī non negatives a single word; as,—
- ferreus essem, nisi të amarem, I should be hard-hearted unless I loved you; but—
- ferreus essem, sI të non amarem, I should be hard-hearted if I did NOT love you.

In the first example, it is the notion of *loving you* that is negatived, in the second, the notion of *loving*.

- 2. Sī non (sī minus) must be employed:
 - a) When an apodosis with at, tamen, certē follows; as, dolorem sī non potuero frangere, tamen occultābo, if I cannot crush my sorrow, yet I will hide it.
 - b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form;
 as,
 - sī fēceris, māgnam habēbō grātiam; sī non fēceris, ignoscam, if you do it, I shall be deeply grateful; if you do not do it, I shall pardon you.
 - But if the verb is omitted in the repetition, only sī minus is admissible; as,
 - hoc si assecutus sum, gaudeo; si minus, me consolor, if I have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself.
- 3. Sin. Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by sin; as,—hunc mihi timōrem ēripe; sī vērus est, nē opprimar, sīn falsus, ut timēre dēsinam, relieve me of this fear; if it is well founded, that I may not be destroyed; but if it is groundless, that I may cease to fear.
- 4. Nisi has a fondness for combining with negatives (non, nomo, nihil); as,—

nihil cogitavit nisi caedem, he had no thought but murder.

- a. Non and nisi are always separated in the best Latinity.
- 5. Nisi forte, nisi vērō, nisi sī, unless perchance, unless indeed (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as,—
- nisi vērē, quia perfecta rēs nēn est, nēn vidētur pūnienda, unless indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not seem to merit punishment.

Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

- 307. I. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, ac sī, ut sī, quasi, quam sī, tamquam sī, velut sī, or simply by velut or tamquam. They are followed by the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis, as indicated in the following examples:—
- tantus patrēs metus cēpit, velut sī jam ad portās hostis esset, as great fear seized the senators as (would have seized them) if the enemy were already at the gates;
- sed quid ego hīs testibus ūtor quasi rēs dubia aut obscūra sit, but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure:
- serviam tibi tamquam sī ēmeris mē argento, I will serve you as though you had bought me for money.
- 2. Note that in sentences of this kind the Latin observes the regular principles for the Sequence of Tenses. Thus after principal tenses the Latin uses the Present and Perfect (as in the second and third examples), where the English uses the Past and the Past Perfect.

Concessive Clauses.

- 308. The term 'Concessive' is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of granted that, etc. (see § 278); as,—
- sit für, sit sacrilegus, at est bonus imperator, granted that he is a thief and a robber, yet he is a good commander;

ut hoc vērum sit, granted that this is true;

- ne sit summum malum dolor, malum certe est, granted that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil.
 - a. Here also belongs the use of the Subjunctive with licet (see § 295, 6), where licet has the force of he may, they may, etc.; as,—fremant omnēs licet, dīcam quod sentiō, they may all shout, (but) I shall say what I think.
- Adversative Clauses with Quamvis, Quamquam, etc.
- 309. Clauses introduced by quamvis, quamquam, etsi, tametsi, cum, although, while often classed as 'Concessive,' are yet essentially different from genuine Concessive

- clauses. As a rule, they do not grant or concede anything, but rather state that something is true in spite of something else. They accordingly emphasize the adversative idea, and are properly Subordinate Adversative Clauses. The different particles used to introduce these clauses have different meanings and take different constructions, as follows:—
- 1. Quamvis, however much, although, does not introduce a statement of fact, but represents an act merely as conceived. It is followed by the Subjunctive, usually of the present tense; as,—
- hominės quamvis in turbidis rėbus sint, tamen interdum animis relaxantur, in however stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies;
- non est potestas opitulandi rei publicae quamvis ea prematur periculis, there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dangers.
- 2. Quamquam, etsī, tametsī, although, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense); as,—
- quamquam omnis virtūs nos allicit, tamen jūstitia id māximē efficit, although all virtue attracts us, yet justice does so especially;
- Caesar, etsī nondum consilium hostium cognoverat, tamen id quod accidit suspicabatur, Caesar, though he did not yet know the plans of the enemy, yet was suspecting what actually occurred.
 - a. Etsi, although, must be distinguished from etsi, even if. The latter is a conditional particle and takes any of the constructions admissible for si. (See §§ 302-304.)
 - 3. Cum, although, is followed by the Subjunctive; as, -
- Atticus honores non petiit, cum el paterent, Atticus did not seek honors, though they were open to him.
- 4. **Licet** sometimes loses its verbal force (see § 308, a) and sinks to the level of a conjunction with the force of although. It takes the Subjunctive, Present or Perfect; as,—
- licet omnës terrorës impendeant, succurram, though all terrors hang over me, (yet) I will lend aid.
- 5. Quamquam, with the force and yet, is often used to introduce principal clauses; as,
 - quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak?

6. In post-Augustan writers **quamquam** is freely construed with the Subjunctive, while **quamvis** is often used to introduce statements of fact, and takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus:—

quamquam movērētur hīs vēcibus, although he was moved by these words; quamvīs multī opinārentur, though many thought; quamvīs īnfēstē animē pervēnerās, though you had come with hostile intent,

Clauses with Dum, Modo, Dummodo, denoting a Wish or a Proviso.

- 310. These particles are followed by the Subjunctive (negative ne) and have two distinct uses:—
- I. They are used to introduce clauses *embodying a wish* entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as,—
- multI honesta neglegunt dummodo potentiam consequantur, many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power (if only they may attain);
- omnia postposul, dum praeceptis patris parērem, I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father; nil obstat tibi, dum ne sit ditior alter, nothing hinders you in your desire that your neighbor may not be richer than you.
- II. They are used to express a proviso ('provided that'); as,—
- oderint, dum metuant, let them hate, provided they fear;
- manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria, old men retain their faculties, provided only they retain their interest and vigor;
- nübant, dum në dös flat comes, let them marry, provided no dowry goes with it.
- NOTE. Of these two uses of dum, modo, and dummodo, the first is the original one; the second has grown out of the first, and frequently retains the original notion of wishing, as in oderint, dum metuant.

Relative Clauses.

- 311. Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs.
- 312. I. Relative clauses usually stand in the Indicative Mood, especially clauses introduced by those General Relatives which are doubled or have the suffix -cunque; as,—

- quidquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes, whatever it is, I fear the Greeks even when they offer gifts;
- quidquid oritur, qualecunque est, causam a natura habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever sort it is, has its primal cause in Nature.
- 2. Any simple Relative may introduce a conditional sentence of any of the three types mentioned in §§ 3Q2-304; as,—
- qui hoc dicit, errat, he who says this is mistaken (First Type); qui hoc dicat, erret, he would be mistaken who should say this (Se
- quī hōc dīcat, erret, he would be mistaken who should say this (Second Type);
- qui hoc dixisset, errasset, the man who had said this would have been mistaken.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE (ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA).

- 313. When the language or thought of any person is quoted without change, that is called Direct Discourse (Ōrātiō Rēcta); as, Caesar said, 'The die is cast.' When, on the other hand, one's language or thought is made to depend upon a verb of saying, thinking, etc., that is called Indirect Discourse (Ōrātiō Oblīqua); as, Caesar said that the die was cast; Caesar thought that his troops were victorious.
 - a. For the verbs most frequently employed to introduce Indirect Discourse, see § 331.

MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Declaratory Sentences.

- 314. 1. Declaratory Sentences upon becoming Indirect change their main clause to the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, while all subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive; as,—
- Rēgulus dīxit quam diū jūre jūrando hostium tenērētur non esse se senātorem, Regulus said that as long as he was held by his pledge to the enemy he was not a senator. (Direct: quam diū teneor non sum senātor.)

- 2. The verb of saying, thinking, etc., is sometimes to be inferred from the context; as,—
- tum Romulus legatos circa vicinas gentes misit qui societatem conübiumque peterent: urbes quoque, ut cetera, ex infimo nasci, then Romulus sent envoys around among the neighboring tribes, to ask for alliance and the right of intermarriage, (saying that) cities, like everything else, start from a modest beginning.
- 3. Subordinate clauses which contain an explanatory statement of the writer are not properly a part of the Indirect Discourse, and hence regularly take the Indicative; as,—
- certior factus ex eā parte vīcī, quam Gallīs concesserat, omnēs noctū discessisse, he was informed that all had departed by night from that part of the village which he had granted to the Gauls.
- 4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form, and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where quī is equivalent to et hīc, nam hīc, etc.; as,—
- dīxit urbem Athēniēnsium propūgnāculum oppositum esse barbarīs, apud quam jam bis classēs rēgiās fēcisse naufragium, he said the city of the Athenians had been set against the barbarians like a bukwark, near which (= and near it) the fleets of the King had twice met disaster.
- 5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading verb, or can easily be supplied from the context; as,—
- cum id nescīre Māgō dīceret, when Mago said he did not know this (for sē nescīre).

Interrogative Sentences.

- 315. 1. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunctive; as,—
- Ariovistus Caesarī respondīt: sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Rōmānum. Quid sibi vellet? Cūr in suās possessionēs venīret, Ariovistus replied to Caesar that he

had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he (Caesar) mean? Why did he come into his domain? (Direct: quid tibi vīs? cūr in meās possessionēs venīs?)

- 2. Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, being asked merely for effect, and being equivalent in force to emphatic statements, regularly stand in the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse. Thus:—
- quid est levius (lit. what is more trivial, = nothing is more trivial) of the Direct Discourse becomes quid esse levius in the Indirect.
- 3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain unchanged in mood in the Indirect; as,—

quid faceret, what was he to do? (Direct: quid faciam?)

Imperative Sentences.

- ² 316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the Indirect; as,—
- mīlitēs certiorēs fēcit paulisper intermitterent proelium, he told the soldiers to stop the battle for a little. (Direct: intermittite.)
 - a. The Negative in such sentences is nē; as, nē suae virtūtī tribueret, let him not attribute it to his own valor!

TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

A. Tenses of the Infinitive.

- 317. These are used in accordance with the regular principles for the use of the Infinitive as given in § 270.
 - a. The Perfect Infinitive may represent any past tense of the Indicative of Direct Discourse. Thus:—

sciō tē haec ēgisse may mean -

I know you were doing this. (Direct: haec agebas.)
I know you did this. (Direct: haec egistī.)
I know you had done this. (Direct: haec egerās.)

B. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

318. These follow the regular principle for the Sequence of Tenses, being Principal if the verb of saying is Principal; Historical if it is Historical. Yet for the sake of vividness, we often find the Present Subjunctive used after an historical tense; as,—

Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs dentur, sēsē pācem esse factūrum, Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace.

a. For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see § 268, 2.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Conditional Sentences of the First Type.

- 319. A. THE APODOSIS. Any tense of the Indicative is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive (§§ 270; 317, a).
- B. THE PROTASIS. The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

Examples: —

DIRECT.

INDIRECT.

sī hōc crēdis, errās,

dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errāre; dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errāre.

sī hōc crēdēs, errābis,

 $\left\{\begin{array}{ll} d\bar{\mathbf{i}}c\bar{\mathbf{o}},\,s\bar{\mathbf{i}}\,\,h\bar{o}c\,\,\mathbf{cr\bar{e}d\bar{a}s},\,t\bar{e}\,\,\mathbf{err\bar{a}t\bar{u}rum}\,\,\mathbf{esse}\,;\\ d\bar{\mathbf{i}}x\bar{\mathbf{i}},\,s\bar{\mathbf{i}}\,\,h\bar{o}c\,\,\mathbf{cr\bar{e}der\bar{e}s},\,t\bar{e}\,\,\mathbf{err\bar{a}t\bar{u}rum}\,\,\mathbf{esse}. \end{array}\right.$

dīcō, sī hōc crēdideris, tē errātūrum esse;

sī hōc crēdideris, errābis,

dīxī, sī hōc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum

sī hōc crēdēbās, errāvistī, $\left\{ egin{align*} d\bar{\mathbf{l}} c\bar{\mathbf{o}}, s\bar{\mathbf{i}} \ h\bar{\mathbf{o}}c \ crēderēs, t\bar{\mathbf{c}} \ errāvisse: \\ d\bar{\mathbf{i}} x\bar{\mathbf{i}}, s\bar{\mathbf{i}} \ h\bar{\mathbf{o}}c \ crēderēs, t\bar{\mathbf{c}} \ errāvisse. \end{array} \right.$

a. Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.

Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.

- **320.** A. The Apodosis. The Present Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse regularly becomes the Future Infinitive of the Indirect.
- B. THE PROTASIS. The Protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples: -

sī hōc crēdās, errēs, $\left\{ egin{aligned} d\bar{i}c\bar{o}, s\bar{i} & h\bar{o}c & crēdās, t\bar{c} & errātūrum & esse; \\ d\bar{i}x\bar{i}, s\bar{i} & h\bar{o}c & crēderēs, t\bar{c} & errātūrum & esse. \end{aligned} \right.$

Conditional Sentences of the Third Type.

321. A. THE APODOSIS.

- 1. The Imperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:
 - a) In the Active Voice the Future Infinitive.
 - b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form futurum esse (fore) ut, with the Imperfect Subjunctive.
- 2. The Pluperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:
 - a) In the Active Voice the Infinitive in -urus fuisse.
 - b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form futurum fuisse ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive.
- B. THE PROTASIS. The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples: —

sī hōc **crēderēs**, **errārēs**,

dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēderēs, tè errātūrum esse;

sī hōc **crēdidissēs**, **errāvissēs**,

dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum fuisse;

sī hōc dīxissēs, pūnītus essēs,

dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc dīxissēs fūtūrum fuisse ut pūnīrēris.

322. When an apodosis of a conditional sentence of the Third Type referring to the past is at the same time a Result clause, or a

- quīn-clause (after non dubito, etc.), it stands in the Perfect Subjunctive in the form -ūrus fuerim; as,—
- ita territī sunt, ut arma trāditūrī fuerint, nisi Caesar subitō advēnisset, they were so frightened that they would have given up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arrived;
- non dubito quin, si hoc dixisses, erraturus fueris, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have made a mistake.
 - a. This peculiarity is confined to the Active Voice. In the Passive, such sentences, when they become dependent, remain unchanged; as,
 - non dubito quin, si hoc dixisses, vituperatus esses, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have been blamed.
 - b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a conditional sentence of the Third Type, -ūrus fuerim (rarely -ūrus fuissem) is used; as, quaerō, num, sī hōc dīxissēs, errātūrus fueris (or fuissēs).
 - c. Potul, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as,
 - concursû tötlus cīvitātis döfönsī sunt, ut frīgidissimös quoque örātörēs populī studia excitāre potuerint, they were defended before a gathering of all the citizens, so that the interest of the people would have been enough to excite even the most apathetic orators.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

- **323.** The Subjunctive is often used in subordinate clauses whose Indirect character is *merely implied by the context*; as,—
- dēmonstrābantur mihi praetereā, quae Socratēs dē immortālitāte animorum disseruisset, there were explained to me besides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the immortality of the soul (i.e. the arguments which, it was said, Socrates had set forth);
- Paetus omnēs libros quos pater suus reliquisset mihi donāvit, Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left.

¹ Trāditūrī fuerint and errātūrus fueris are to be regarded as representing trāditūrī fuērunt and errātūrus fuistī of Direct Discourse. (See § 304, 3, b).

SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

- 324. I. Subordinate clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive are frequently attracted into the same mood, especially when they do not express a fact, but constitute an essential part of one complex idea; as,—
- nemo avarus adhuc inventus est, cui, quod haberet, esset satis, no miser has yet been found who was satisfied with what he had;
- cum diversas causas afferrent, dum formam sui quisque et animi et ingenii redderent, as they brought forward different arguments, while each mirrored his own individual type of mind and natural bent.
- quod ego fatear, pudeat, should I be ashamed of a thing which I admit?
- 2. Similarly a subordinate clause dependent upon an Infinitive is put in the Subjunctive when the two form one closely united whole; as,—
- mos est Athonis quotannis in contione laudari eos qui sint in procliis interfecti, it is the custom at Athons every year for those to be publicly eulogized who have been killed in battle. (Here the notion of 'praising those who fell in battle' forms an inseparable whole.)

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on the one hand, and of the Noun or Adjective, on the other. Thus:—

As Verbs, --

- a) They may be limited by adverbs;
- b) They admit an object;
- c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives, -

- a) They are declined;
- b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.

THE INFINITIVE.

Infinitive without Subject Accusative.

326. This may be used either as Subject or Object.

NOTE. — The Infinitive was originally a Dative, and traces of this are still to be seen in the poetical use of the Infinitive to express purpose; as, nec dulces occurrent oscula nati praeripere, and no sweet children will run to snatch kisses.

A. As Subject.

- 327. I. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Subject of esse and various impersonal verbs, particularly opus est, necesse est, oportet, juvat, delectat, placet, libet, licet, praestat, conducit, expedit, decet, pudet, interest, etc.; as,—
- dulce et decorum est pro patria morī, it is sweet and noble to die for one's country;
- virorum est fortium toleranter dolorem patī, it is the part of brave men to endure pain with patience;
- senātuī placuit lēgātōs mittere, the Senate decided (lit. it pleased the Senate) to send envoys.
- 2. Even though the Infinitive itself appears without Subject, it may take a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the Accusative; as,—
- aliud est îrăcundum esse, aliud îrătum, it is one thing to be irascible, another to be angry;
- impune quaelibet facere, id est regem esse, to do whatever you please with impunity, that is to be a king.
 - a. But when licet is followed by a Dative of the person, a Predicate Noun or Adjective with esse is attracted into the same case; as, licuit esse ōtiōsō Themistocli, lit. it was permitted to Themistocles to be at leisure. So sometimes with other Impersonals.

B. As Object.

328. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Object of many verbs, to denote another action of the same subject, particularly after →

volō, cupiō, mālō, nōlō;
dēbeō, ought;
statuō, constituo, decide;

cōgitō, meditor, purpose, intend; neglegō, neglect; vereor, timeō, fear; audeō, dare; studeō, contendō, strive; parō, prepare (so parātus); incipiō, coepī, īnstituō, begin; pergō, continue; dēsinō, dēsistō, cease; possum, can; cōnor, try; mātūrō, festīnō, properō, contendō, hasten;
assuēscō, cōnsuēscō, accustom
myself (so assuētus, īnsuētus,
assuēfactus);
discō, learn;
sciō, know how;
soleō, am wont; as,—

tū hos intuērī audēs, do you dare to look on these men?

Dēmosthenēs ad fluctum maris dēclāmāre solēbat, Demosthenes used to declaim by the waves of the sea.

2. A Predicate Noun or Adjective with these Infinitives is attracted into the Nominative; as,—

beātus esse sine virtūte nēmo potest, no one can be happy without virtue;

Cato esse quam videri bonus malebat, Cato preferred to be good rather than to seem so.

Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

329. This may be used either as Subject or Object.

A. As Subject.

330. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative (like the simple Infinitive) appears as Subject with esse and Impersonal verbs, particularly with aequum est, jūstum est, ūtile est, turpe est, apertum est, perspicuum est, fāma est, opīniō est, spēs est, fās est, nefās est, opus est, necesse est, oportet, appāret, cōnstat, praestat, etc.; as,—

nihil in bello oportet contemnī, nothing ought to be despised in war; apertum est sibi quemque nātūrā esse cārum, it is manifest that by nature everybody is dearest to himself.

B. As Object.

- 331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as Object after the following classes of verbs:—
- I. Most frequently after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, perceiving, and the like (Verba Sentiendi et Dēclārandi). This is the

regular construction of Principal Clauses of Indirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: sentiō, audiō, videō, cognōscō; putō, jūdicō, spērō, cōnfīdō; sciō, meminī; dīcō, affīrmō, negō (say that . . . not), trādō, nārrō, fateor, respondeō, scrībō, prōmittō, glōrior. Also the phrases: certiōrem faciō (inform), memoriā teneō (remember), etc.

Examples: ---

- Epicure putant cum corporibus simul animos interire, the Epicureans think that the soul perishes with the body;
- Thales dixit aquam esse initium rerum, Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe;
- Dēmocritus negat quicquid esse sempiternum, Democritus says nothing is everlasting;
- spērō eum ventūrum esse, I hope that he will come.
 - II. With jubeo, order, and veto, forbid; as, -
- Caesar mīlitēs pontem facere jussit, Caesar ordered the soldiers to make a bridge.
 - a. When the name of the person who is ordered or forbidden to do something is omitted, the Infinitive with jubeo and veto is put in the Passive; as, Caesar pontem flori jussit.
 - .III. With patior and sino, permit, allow; as, -
- nullo se implicari negotio passus est, he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty.
- IV. With volō, nōlō, mālō, cupiō, when the Subject of the Infinitive is different from that of the governing verb; as,—
- nec mihi hunc errorem extorqueri volo, nor do I wish this error to be wrested from me;
- eas res jactarī nolebat, he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed;
- tē tuīs dīvitis fruī cupimus, we desire that you enjoy your wealth.
 - a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with § 328, 1. But exceptions occur, especially in case of esse and Passive Infinitives; as,
 - cupio me esse clementem, I desire to be lenient;
 - Timoleon māluit sē dīligī quam metui, Timoleon preferred to be loved rather than feared.
 - b. Volo and nolo also admit the Subjunctive, with or without ut. (See § 296, 1, a.)

V. With Verbs of *emotion* (*joy*, *sorrow*, *regret*, *etc.*), especially gaudeō, laetor, doleō; aegrē ferō, molestē ferō, graviter ferō, *am annoyed*, *distressed*; mīror, queror, indīgnor; as,—

gaudeo të salvum advenire, I rejoice that you arrive safely; non molestë ferunt së libidinum vinculis laxatos esse, they are not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion;

miror te ad me nihil scribere, I wonder that you write me nothing.

- a. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a quodclause as Object. (See § 299.) Thus: miror quod non loqueris, I wonder that you do not speak.
- VI. Some verbs which take two Accusatives, one of the Person and the other of the Thing (§ 178, 1) may substitute an Infinitive for the second Accusative; as,—

cogo të hoc facere, I compel you to do this (cf. të hoc cogo); docul të contentum esse, I taught you to be content (cf. të modestiam docul, I taught you temperance).

Passive Construction of the Foregoing Verbs.

- 332. Those verbs which in the Active are followed by the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, usually admit the personal construction in the Passive. This is true of the following:
 - a) jubeor, vetor, sinor; as,—

mīlitēs pontem facere jussī sunt, the soldiers were ordered to build a bridge;

pons fierī jussus est, a bridge was ordered built;

mīlitēs castrīs exīre vetitī sunt, the troops were forbidden to go out of the camp;

Sestius Clodium accusare non est situs, Sestius was not allowed to accuse Clodius.

- b) videor, I am seen, I seem; as,—
 vidētur comperisse, he seems to have discovered.
- dīcor, putor, exīstimor, jūdicor (in all persons); as, —
 dīcitur in Italiam vēnisse, he is said to have come into Italy;

Romulus primus rex Romanorum fuisse putatur, Romulus is thought to have been the first king of the Romans.

- d) fertur, feruntur, trāditur, trāduntur (only in the third person); as,
 - fertur Homerus caecus fuisse, Homer is said to have been blind;
 - carmina Archilochī contumēliīs referta esse trāduntur,

 Archilochus's poems are reported to have been full of
 abuse.

NOTE.—In compound tenses and periphrastic forms, the last two classes of verbs, c), d), more commonly take the impersonal construction; as,—trāditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, the story goes that Homer was blind.

Infinitive with Adjectives.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except parātus, assuētus, etc.; see § 328, 1) occurs only in poetry and post-Augustan prose writers; as,—

contentus dēmonstrāsse, contented to have proved; audāx omnia perpetī, bold for enduring everything.

Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying scorn, indignation, or regret. An interrogative (or intensive) -ne is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples:—

huncine solem tam nigrum surrexe mihi, to think that to-day's sun rose with such evil omen for me!

sedēre tōtōs diēs in vīllā, to stay whole days at the villa!

Historical Infinitive.

335. The Infinitive is often used in historical narrative instead of the Imperfect Indicative. The Subject stands in the Nominative; as,—interim cottīdiē Caesar Aeduōs frümentum flāgitāre, meanwhile Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Aedui.

PARTICIPLES.

Tenses of the Participle.

336. 1. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the Infinitive (see § 270), express time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb upon which the Participle depends.

2. The Present Participle denotes action contemporary with that of the verb. Thus: —

audiō tē loquentem = you ARE speaking and I hear you; audiēbam tē loquentem = you WERE speaking and I heard you; audiam tē loquentem = you WILL BE speaking and I shall hear you.

a. The Present Participle is sometimes employed with Conative force; as,—

assurgentem regem resupinat, as the king was trying to rise, he threw him down.

3. The Perfect Passive Participle denotes action prior to that of the verb. Thus:—

locutus taceo = I have spoken and am silent; locutus tacu = I had spoken and then was silent; locutus tacebo = I shall speak and then shall be silent.

- 4. The absolute time of the action of a participle, therefore, is determined entirely by the finite verb with which it is connected.
- 5. Certain Perfect Passive Participles of Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs are used as Presents; viz. arbitrātus, ausus, ratus, gāvīsus, solitus, ūsus, confīsus, diffīsus, secūtus, veritus.

Use of Participles.

- 337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicate modifier of a Substantive.
- 1. Attributive Use. This presents no special peculiarities. Examples are: —
- gloria est consentions laus bonorum, glory is the unanimous praise of the good;
- Conon muros à Lysandro dirutos reficit, Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander.
- 2. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote:—
 - a) Time; as,—
 omne malum nāscēns facile opprimitur, every evil is easily crushed at birth.
 - b) A Condition; as, mente ūtī non possumus cibo et potione completi, if gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects.

- c) Manner; as, -
 - Solon senëscere së dicëbat multa in diës addiscentem, Solon said he grew old learning many new things every day.
- d) Means; as,—
 sol orions diem conficit, the sun, by its rising, makes the day.
- e) Opposition ('though'); as,—
 mendācī hominī nē vērum quidem dīcentī crēdimus,
 we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.
- f) Cause; as, perfidiam veritus ad suos recessit, since he feared treachery, he returned to his own troops.
- 3. Videō and audiō, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Participle in the Predicate use; as,—

video të fugientem, I see you fleeing.

- a. So frequently facio, fingo, induco, etc.; as,
 - els Catonem respondentem facimus, we represent Cato replying to them;
 - Homērus Laërtem colentem agrum facit, Homer represents Laertes tilling the field.
- 4. The Future Active Participle (except futures) is regularly confined to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later writers it is used independently, especially to denote purpose; as,—

vēnērunt castra oppūgnātūrī, they came to assault the camp.

5. The Perfect Passive Participle in combination with a noun is sometimes equivalent to an abstract noun with a dependent Genitive; as,—

post urbem conditam, after the founding of the city; Quinctius defensus, the defense of Quinctius; quibus animus occupatus, the preoccupation of the mind with which; non redditae res, the failure to make restitution.

6. Habeo sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predicate construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative; as,—

copias quas coactas habebat, the forces which he had collected.

- 7. The Gerundive denotes obligation or necessity. Like other Participles it may be used either as Attributive or Predicate.
 - a) Less frequently as Attributive. Thus:—
 liber legendus, a book worth reading;
 leges observandae, laws deserving of observance.
 - b) More frequently as Predicate.
 - 1) In the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (amandus est, etc.). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordinary case-construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.); as,—

veniendum est, it is necessary to come;

- oblīvīscendum est injūriārum, one must forget injuries; numquam proditorī credendum est, you must never trust a traitor;
- suo cuique ütendum est jüdicio, every man must use his own judgment.
- 2) After cūrō, provide for; dō, trādō, give over; relinquō, leave; concēdō, hand over; and some other verbs, instead of an object clause or to denote purpose; as,—
- Caesar pontem in Arare faciendum curavit, Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge over the Arar;
- imperator urbem militibus diripiendam concessit, the general handed over the city to the soldiers to plunder.
- 8. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see § 339, 1.

THE GERUND.

- 338. As a verbal noun the Gerund admits noun constructions as follows:—
 - 1. Genitive. The Genitive of the Gerund is used
 - a) With nouns, as Objective or Appositional Genitive (see §§ 200, 202); as,—

cupiditās dominandī, desire of ruling; ars sorībendī, the art of writing.

- b) With Adjectives; as,—
 cupidus audiendī, desirous of hearing.
- With causā, grātiā; as,—
 discendī causā, for the sake of learning.

- 2. Dative. The Dative of the Gerund is used
 - a) With Adjectives; as, aqua ütilis est bibendo, water is useful for drinking.
 - b) With Verbs (rarely); as, adful scribendo, I was present at the writing.
- 3. Accusative. The Accusative of the Gerund is used only with Prepositions, chiefly ad and in to denote purpose; as, -

homö ad agendum nätus est, man is born for action.

- 4. Ablative. The Ablative of the Gerund is used
 - a) Without a Preposition, as an Ablative of Means, Cause, etc. (see §§ 218, 219); as,
 - mēns discendō alitur et cogitando, the mind is nourished by learning and reflection.
 - Themistoclēs maritimos praedonēs consectando mare tütum reddidit, Themistocles made the sea safe by following up the pirates.
 - b) After the prepositions **ā**, **dē**, **ex**, **in**; as,
 - summa voluptās ex discendo capitur, the keenest pleasure is derived from learning;
 - multa de bene beateque vivendo a Platone disputata sunt, there was much discussion by Plato on the subject of living well and happily.
- 5. As a rule, only the Genitive of the Gerund and the Ablative (without a preposition) admit a Direct Object.

Gerundive Construction instead of the Gerund.

339. I. Instead of the Genitive or Ablative of the Gerund with a Direct Object, another construction may be, and very often is, used. This consists in putting the Direct Object in the case of the Gerund (Gen. or Abl.) and using the Gerundive in agreement with it. This is called the Gerundive Construction. Thus: -

GERUND CONSTRUCTION.

GERUNDIVE CONSTRUCTION.

cupidus urbem videndī, desirous cupidus urbis videndae;

delector oratores legendo, I am charmed with reading the orators. delector oratoribus legendos.

2. The Gerundive Construction must be used to avoid a Direct Object with the Dative of the Gerund, or with a case dependent upon a Preposition: as.—

locus castrīs mūniendīs aptus, a place adapted to fortifying a camp; ad pācem petendam vēnērunt, they came to ask peace; multum temporis consūmo in legendīs poētīs, I spend much time in reading the poets.

- 3. In order to avoid ambiguity (see § 236, 2), the Gerundive Construction must not be employed in case of Neuter Adjectives used substantively. Thus regularly—
- philosophi cupidī sunt vērum invēstīgandī, philosophers are eager for discovering truth (rarely vērī invēstīgandī);
- studium plūra cognōscendī, a desire of knowing more (not plūrium cognōscendōrum).
- 4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive Construction; but **ūtor**, fruor, fungor, potior (originally transitive) regularly admit it; as,—
- hostes in spem potiundorum castrorum venerant, the enemy had conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp.
- 5. The Genitives meī, tuī, suī, nostrī, vestrī, when used in the Gerundive Construction, are regularly employed without reference to Gender or Number, since they were originally Neuter Singular Adjectives used substantively. Thus:—
- mulier suI servandI causā aufūgit, the woman fled for the sake of saving herself;
- lēgātī in castra vēnērunt suī pūrgandī causā, the envoys came into camp for the purpose of clearing themselves;
- So nostrī servandī causā, for the sake of saving ourselves.
- 6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote purpose; as,—
- sī arborum truncī sīve nāvēs dēiciendī operis essent a barbarīs missae, if trunks of trees or boats should be sent down by the barbarians for the purpose of destroying the structure.
- 7. The Dative of the Gerundive Construction occurs in some expressions which have the character of formulas; as,—
- decemviri legibus scribundis, decemvirs for codifying the laws; quindecimviri sacris faciundis, quindecemvirs for performing the sacrifices.

THE SUPINE.

- **340.** 1. The Supine in -um is used after Verbs of motion to express purpose; as, —
- lēgātī ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, envoys came to Caesar to congratulate him.
 - a. The Supine in -um may take an Object; as, pācem petītum ōrātōrēs Rōmam mittunt, they send envoys to Rome to ask for peace.
 - b. Note the phrase:
 - do (colloco) filiam n\u00fcptum, I give my daughter in marriage.
- 2. The Supine in -ū is used as an Ablative of Specification with facilis, difficilis, incrēdibilis, jūcundus, optimus, etc.; also with fās est, nefās est, opus est; as,—

hace res est facilis cognitu, this thing is easy to learn; hoc est optimum factu, this is best to do.

- a. Only a few Supines in -ū are in common use, chiefly audītū, cognitū, dictū, factū, vīsū.
- b. The Supine in -ū never takes an Object.

CHAPTER VI. — Particles.

COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

- **341.** Copulative Conjunctions. These *join* one word, phrase, or clause to another.
 - 1. a) et simply connects.
 - o) -que joins more closely than et, and is used especially where the two members have an internal connection with each other; as,—

parentës liberique, parents and children; cum hominës aestil febrique jactantur, when people are tossed about with heat and fever. c) atque (ac) usually emphasizes the second of the two things connected,—and also, and indeed, and in fact. After words of likeness and difference atque (ac) has the force of as, than. Thus:—

ego idem sentio ac tu, I think the same as you; haud aliter ac, not otherwise than.

- d) neque (nec) means and not, neither, nor.
- a) -que is an enclitic, and is appended always to the second of
 two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses
 it is appended to the first word of the second clause; but
 when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition,
 -que is regularly appended to the next following word; as,
 ob eamque rem, and on account of that thing.
 - atque is used before vowels and consonants; ac never before vowels, and seldom before c, g, qu.
 - c) et non is used for neque when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word; as,—

vetus et non ignobilis orator, an old and not ignoble orator.

- d) For and nowhere, and never, and none, the Latin regularly said nec usquam, nec umquam, nec ullus, etc.
- 3. Correlatives. Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlatively; as,—

et . . . et, both . . . and; neque (nec) . . . neque (nec), neither . . . nor; cum . . . tum, while . . . at the same time; tum . . . tum, not only . . . but also.

Less frequently: -

et . . . neque; neque . . . et.

a. Note that the Latin, with its tendency to emphasize antithetical relations, often uses correlatives, especially et . . . et, et . . . neque, where the English employs but a single connective.

4. In enumerations —

- a) The different members of a series may follow one another without connectives (Asyndeton; see § 346). Thus:
 - ex cupiditātibus odia, discidia, discordiae, sēditionēs, bella nāscuntur, from covetous desires spring up hatred, dissensions, discord, sedition, wars.

- b) The different members may severally be connected by et (Polysyndeton). Thus:
 - horae cedunt et dies et menses et anni, hours and days and years and months pass away.
- c) The connective may be omitted between the former members, while the last two are connected by -que (rarely et); as,—
 - Caesar in Carnutes, Andes Turonesque legiones deducit, Caesar leads his legions into the territory of the Carnutes, Andes, and Turones.
- 342. Disjunctive Conjunctions indicate an alternative.
- a) aut must be used when the alternatives are mutually exclusive; as,
 - cita mors venit aut victoria laeta, (either) swift death or glad victory comes.
 - b) vel, -ve (enclitic) imply a choice between the alternatives; as,
 - quī aethēr vel caelum nominātur, which is called aether or heaven.
- 2. Correlatives. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correlatively; as,—

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aut . . . aut, either . . . or;
vel . . . vel, either . . . or;
sīve . . . sīve, if . . . . . or if.
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- 343. Adversative Conjunctions. These denote opposition.
 - 1. a) sed, but, merely denotes opposition.
 - b) vērum, but, is stronger than sed, but is less frequently used.
 - c) autem, but on the other hand, however, marks a transition. It is always post-positive.

DEFINITION. A post-positive word is one that cannot begin a sentence, but is placed after one or more words.

- d) at, but, is used especially in disputation, to introduce an opposing argument.
- e) atqui means but yet.
- f) tamen, yet, usually stands after the emphatic word, but not always.
- g) vērō, however, indeed, in truth, is always post-positive.

- 2. Note the correlative expressions: -
- non solum (non modo) . . . sed etiam, not only . . . but also;
 non modo non . . . sed no . . . quidem, not only not, but not
 even; as,—
- non modo tibi non Irascor, sed ne reprehendo quidem factum tuum, I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even blame your action.
 - a. But when the sentence has but one verb, and this stands with the second member, non modo may be used for non modo non; as,
 - adsentātio non modo amico sed ne libero quidem digna ost, flattery is not only (not) worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man.
- **344.** Illative Conjunctions. These represent the statement which they introduce as *following from* or as *in conformity with* what has preceded.
 - I. a) itaque = and so, accordingly.
 - b) $erg\bar{o} = therefore, accordingly.$
 - c) igitur (regularly post-positive 1) = therefore, accordingly.
 - 2. Igitur is never combined with et, atque, -que, or neque.
- **345.** Causal Conjunctions. These denote cause, or give an explanation. They are nam, namque, enim (post-positive), etenim, for.
- **346.** Asyndeton. The conjunction is sometimes omitted between coördinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned narration. Thus:
 - a) A Copulative Conjunction is omitted; as,
 - avāritia Infinīta, Insatiābilis est, avarice is boundless (and) insatiable;
 - Cn. Pompējō, M. Crassō consulibus, in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey (and) Marcus Crassus.

The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of consuls when the praenomen (Mārcus, Gāius, etc.) is expressed.

b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted; as, rationes defuerunt, übertas orationis non defuit, arguments were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not.

¹ Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.

ADVERBS.

347. I. The following particles, sometimes classed as Conjunctions, are more properly Adverbs:—

etiam, also, even.

quoque (always post-positive), also.

quidem (always post-positive) lays stress upon the preceding word.

It is sometimes equivalent to the English indeed, in fact, but more frequently cannot be rendered, except by vocal emphasis.

nē . . . quidem means not even; the emphatic word or phrase always stands between; as, nē ille quidem, not even he.

tamen and vērō, in addition to their use as Conjunctions, are often employed as Adverbs.

- 2. Negatives. Two Negatives are regularly equivalent to an affirmative as in English, as non nulli, some; but when non, nomo, nihil, numquam, etc., are accompanied by neque . . . neque, non . . . non, non modo, or no . . . quidem, the latter particles simply take up the negation and emphasize it; as,—
- habeo hic nominem neque amicum neque cognatum, I have here no one, neither friend nor relative.
- non enim praetereundum est ne id quidem, for not even that must be passed by.
 - a. Haud in Cicero and Caesar occurs almost exclusively as a modifier of Adjectives and Adverbs, and in the phrase haud scio an. Later writers use it freely with verbs.

CHAPTER VII. — Word-Order and Sentence-Structure.

A. WORD-ORDER.

348. In the normal arrangement of the Latin sentence the Subject stands at the beginning of the sentence, the Predicate at the end; as,—

Darīus classem quingentārum nāvium comparāvit, Darius got ready a fleet of five hundred ships.

349. But for the sake of emphasis the normal arrangement is often abandoned, and the emphatic word is put at the beginning, less frequently at the end of the sentence; as,—

māgnus in hōc bellō Themistoclēs fuit, GREAT was Themistocles in this war:

aliud iter habēmus nüllum, other course we have NONE.

SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

- **350.** I. **Nouns.** A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus:
 - a) Depending upon a Noun:—

tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the plebs; filius rēgis, son of the king; vir māgnī animī, a man of noble spirit.

Yet always senātūs consultum, plēbis scītum.

b) Depending upon an Adjective: -

ignārus rērum, ignorant of affairs; dīgnī amīcitiā, worthy of friendship; plūs aequō, more than (what is) fair.

2. Appositives. An Appositive regularly follows its Subject; as,—

Philippus, rēx Macedonum, Philip, king of the Macedonians; adsentātiō, vitiōrum adjūtrīx, flattery, promoter of evils.

Yet flümen Rhenus, the River Rhine; and always in good prose urbs Roma, the city Rome.

- 3. The **Vocative** usually follows one or more words; as,—
 Audī, Caesar, hear, Caesar!
- -4. Adjectives. No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun oftener than they follow it.
 - a. Adjectives of quantity (including numerals) regularly precede their noun; as,—

omnës hominës, all men; septingentae nävës, seven hundred vessels.

- b. Note the force of position in the following: media urbs, the middle of the city; urbs media, the middle city; extrēmum bellum, the end of the war; bellum extrēmum, the last war.
- c. Rōmānus and Latīnus regularly follow; as,—
 senātus populusque Rōmānus, the Roman Senate and
 People;
 lūdī Rōmānī, the Roman games;
 fēriae Latīnae, the Latin holidays.
- d. When a Noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, a favorite order is: Adjective, Genitive, Noun; as,—summa omnium rērum abundantia, the greatest abundance of all things.

5. Pronouns.

a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns regularly precede the Noun; as,—

hīc homō, this man;

ille homō, that man;

erant duo itinera, quibus itineribus, etc., there were two routes, by which, etc.

quI homo? what sort of a man?

- b. But ille in the sense of 'that well known,' 'that famous,' usually stands after its Noun; as,—
 testula illa, that well-known custom of ostracism;
 Mēdēa illa, that famous Medea.
- c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their Noun; as,—

pater meus, my father;

homō quīdam, a certain man;

mulier aliqua, some woman.

But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes its Noun; as,—

meus pater, MY father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.).

d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence, the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity; as,—nisi forte ego vobis cessare videor, unless perchance I seem to you to be doing nothing.

6. Adverbs and Adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify; as, —

valdē dīligēns, extremely diligent; saepe dīxī, I have often said; tē jam diū hortāmur, we have long been urging you; paulō post, a little after.

- 7. Prepositions regularly precede the words they govern.
 - a. But limiting words often intervene between the Preposition and its case; as, —

de communi hominum memoria, concerning the common memory of men;

ad beātē vīvendum, for living happily.

b. When a noun is modified by an Adjective, the Adjective is often placed before the preposition; as,—

māgnō in dolōre, in great grief; summā cum laude, with the highest credit; quā dē causā, for which cause; hanc ob rem, on account of this thing.

- c. For Anastrophe, by which a Preposition is put after its case, see § 144, 3.
- 8. Conjunctions. Autem, enim, and igitur regularly stand in the second place in the sentence, but when combined with est or sunt they often stand third; as,—

ita est enim, for so it is.

- Words or Phrases referring to the preceding sentence or to some part of it, regularly stand first; as,—
- id ut audīvit, Corcyram dēmigrāvit, when he heard that (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), he moved to Corcyra;
 eō cum Caesar vēnisset, timentēs confirmat, when Caesar had come thither (i.e. to the place just mentioned), he encouraged the timid.
- 10. The Latin has a fondness for putting side by side words which are etymologically related; as,—
- ut ad senem senex de senectute, sic hoc libro ad amicum amicissimus de amicitia scripsi, as I, an old man, wrote to an old man, on old age, so in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend concerning friendship.

- 11. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following:
 - a) Hypérbaton, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together; as,
 - septimus mihi Originum liber est in manibus, the seventh book of my 'Origines' is under way;
 - recepto Caesar Orico proficiscitur, having recovered Oricus, Caesar set out.
 - Anáphora, which consists in the repetition of the same word or the same word-order in successive phrases; as,
 - sed plēnī omnēs sunt librī, plēnae sapientium võcēs, plēna exemplōrum vetustās, but all books are full of it, the voices of sages are full of it, antiquity is full of examples of it.
 - c) Chiásmus, which consists in changing the relative order of words in two antithetical phrases; as,
 - multos defendi, laesī nēminem, many have I defended, I have injured no one;
 - horribilem illum diem aliīs, nobīs faustum, that day dreadful to others, for us fortunate.
 - d) Sýnchysis, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially that of the Imperial Period; as,
 - simulātam Pompējānārum grātiam partium, pretended interest in the Pompeian party.
- 12. Metrical Close. At the end of a sentence certain cadences were avoided; others were much employed. Thus:
 - a) Cadences avoided.
 - _______; as, esse vidētur (close of hexameter).
 _______; as, esse potest (close of pentameter).
 - b) Cadences frequently employed.
 - $_ \cup _$; as, auxerant.
 - _ U _ U; as, comprobāvit.
 - _ ∪ ∪ ∪ _ ∪; as, esse videātur.
 - ∪ _ _ ; as, rogātū tuō.

multōs laesī

¹ So named from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter X (chi). Thus:—

B. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE.

- 351. 1. Unity of Subject. In complex sentences the Latin regularly holds to unity of Subject in the different members; as, —
- Caesar primum suō, deinde omnium ex cōnspectū remōtīs equīs, ut aequātō periculō spem fugae tolleret, cohortātus suōs proelium commīsit, Caesar having first removed his own horse from sight, then the horses of all, in order, by making the danger equal, to take away hope of flight, encouraged his men and joined battle.
- 2. A word serving as the common Subject or Object of the main clause and a subordinate one, stands before both; as,—
- Aedui cum se defendere non possent, legatos ad Caesarem mittunt, since the Aedui could not defend themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar;
- ille etsī flāgrābat bellandī cupiditāte, tamen pācī serviendum putāvit, although he was burning with a desire to fight, yet he thought he ought to aim at peace.
 - a. The same is true also
 - 1) When the Subject of the main clause is Object (Direct or Indirect) of a subordinate clause; as,—
 - Caesar, cum hoc el nuntiatum esset, maturat ab urbe proficisci, when this had been reported to Caesar he hastened to set out from the city.
 - 2) When the Subject of a subordinate clause is at the same time the Object (Direct or Indirect) of the main clause; as,—
 - L. Manliō, cum dictātor fuisset, M. Pompōnius tribūnus plēbis diem dīxit, M. Pomponius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Manlius though he had been dictator.
- 3. Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as,—
- postquam haec dīxit, profectus est, after he said this, he set out;
 sī quis ita agat, imprūdēns sit, if any one should act so, he would
 be devoid of foresight;
- accidit ut una nocte omnes Hermae deicerentur, it happened that in a single night all the Hermae were thrown down.

- 4. Sometimes in Latin the main verb is placed within the sub-ordinate clause; as,—
- sī quid est in mē ingenī, quod sentiō quam sit exiguum, if there is any talent in me, and I know how little it is.
- 5. The Latin Period. The term Period, when strictly used, designates a compound sentence in which the subordinate clauses are inserted within the main clause; as,—
- Caesar etsī intellegēbat quā dē causā ea dīcerentur, tamen, nē aestātem in Trēverīs consumere cogerētur, Indutiomarum ad sē venīre jussit, though Caesar perceived why this was said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the summer among the Treveri, he ordered Indutiomarus to come to him.

In the Periodic structure the thought is suspended until the end of the sentence is reached. Many Roman writers were extremely fond of this sentence-structure, and it was well adapted to the inflectional character of their language; in English we generally avoid it.

- 6. When there are several subordinate clauses in one Period, the Latin so arranges them as to avoid a succession of verbs. Thus:—
- At hostes cum misissent, qui, quae in castris gererentur, cognoscerent, ubi se déceptos intellexerunt, omnibus copiis subsecuti ad flumen contendunt, but the enemy when they had sent men to learn what was going on in camp, after discovering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their forces and hurried to the river.

CHAPTER VIII. — Hints on Latin Style.

352. In this chapter brief consideration is given to a few features of Latin diction which belong rather to style than to formal grammar.

NOUNS.

353. 1. Where a distinct reference to several persons or things is involved, the Latin is frequently much more exact in the use of the Plural than is the English; as,—

domōs eunt, they go home (i.e. to their homes); Germānī corpora cūrant, the Germans care for the body; animōs mīlitum recreat, he renews the courage of the soldiers; diēs noctēsque timēre, to be in a state of fear day and night.

2. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively, the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singular; as,—

omnia sunt perdita, everything is lost; quae cum ita sint, since this is so; haec omnibus pervulgāta sunt, this is very well known to all.

3. The Latin is usually more concrete than the English, and especially less bold in the personification of abstract qualities. Thus:

ā puerō, ā puerīs, from boyhood;

Sullā dictātore, in Sulla's dictatorship;

mē duce, under my leadership;

Romani cum Carthaginiënsibus pacem fecerunt = Rome made peace with Carthage;

liber doctrinae plēnus = a learned book;

prādentiā Themistoclis Graecia servāta est = Themistocles's foresight saved Greece.

4. The Nouns of Agency in -tor and -sor (see § 147, 1) denote a permanent or characteristic activity; as,—

accūsātorēs (professional) accusers; orātorēs, pleaders;

cantores, singers;

Arminius, Germaniae liberator, Arminius, liberator of Germany.

 a. To denote single instances of an action, other expressions are commonly employed; as,—

Numa, qui Rōmulō successit, Numa, successor of Romulus; qui mea legunt, my readers; qui mē audiunt, my auditors.

- 5. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of a Noun. In English we say: 'The war against Carthage'; 'a journey through Gaul'; 'cities on the sea'; 'the book in my hands'; 'the fight at Salamis'; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another mode of expression. Thus:
 - a) A Genitive; as,—
 dolor injūriārum, resentment at injuries.

- b) An Adjective; as,—
 urbēs maritimae, cities on the sea;
 pūgna Salamīnia, the fight at Salamis.
- c) A Participle; as, —
 pūgna ad Cannās facta, the battle at Cannae.
- d) A Relative clause; as,—
 liber quī in meīs manibus est, the book in my hands.

Note. — Yet within certain limits the Latin does employ Prepositional phrases as Noun modifiers. This is particularly frequent when the governing noun is derived from a verb. The following are typical examples:—

trānsitus in Britanniam, the passage to Britain; excessus ē vītā, departure from life; odium ergā Rōmānōs, hatred of the Romans; liber dē senectūte, the book on old age; amor in patriam, love for one's country.

ADJECTIVES.

- 354. I. Special Latin Equivalents for English Adjectives are
 - a) A Genitive; as,—
 virtūtēs animī = moral virtues;
 dolorēs corporis = bodily ills.
 - b) An Abstract Noun; as, novitās reī = the strange circumstance; asperitās viārum = rough roads.
 - c) Hendiadys (see § 374, 4); as,—
 ratiō et ōrdō = systematic order;
 ārdor et impetus = eager onset.
 - d) Sometimes an Adverb; as,—
 omnēs circā populī, all the surrounding tribes;
 suos semper hostēs, their perpetual foes.
- 2. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified by an Adjective; as,—

doctrīna, theoretical knowledge; oppidum, walled town;

prüdentia, practical knowledge; libellus, little book 3. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit vir, homo, ille, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as,—

Sõcratēs, homõ sapiēns = the wise Socrates; Scīpiō, vir fortissimus = the doughty Scipio; Syrācūsae, urbs praeclārissima = famous Syracuse.

4. An Adjective may be equivalent to a Possessive Genitive; as, — pastor regius, the shepherd of the king; tumultus servīlis, the uprising of the slaves.

PRONOUNS.

- 355. In Compound Sentences the Relative Pronoun has a fondness for connecting itself with the subordinate clause rather than the main one; as,—
- ā quō cum quaererētur, quid māximē expedīret, respondit, when it was asked of him what was best, he replied. (Less commonly, quī, cum ab eō quaererētur, respondit.)
- 2. Uterque, ambo. Uterque means each of two; ambo means both; as,—
- uterque frater abiit, each of the two brothers departed (i.e. separately);
- ambo fratres abierunt, i.e. the two brothers departed together.
 - a. The Plural of uterque occurs -
 - With Nouns used only in the Plural (see § 56); as, in utrīsque castrīs, in each camp.
 - 2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as,—
 - utrique ducës clari fuërunt, the generals on each side (several in number) were famous.

VERBS.

- 356. 1. In case of Defective and Deponent Verbs a Passive is supplied:
 - a) By the corresponding verbal Nouns in combination with esse, etc.; as,—

in odiō sumus, we are hated; in invidiā sum, I am envied;

admīrātionī est, he is admired;
oblīvione obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. is overwhelmed by oblivion);

in ūsū esse, to be used.

- b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus: agitārī as Passive of persequī; temptārī as Passive of adorīrī.
- 2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied .
 - a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Deponent; as,—

adhortātus, having exhorted; veritus, having feared.

- b) By the Ablative Absolute; as,
 - hostium agrīs vāstātīs Caesar exercitum redūxit, having ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back his army.
- c) By subordinate clauses; as, -
 - eō cum advēnisset, castra posuit, having arrived there, he pitched a camp;
 - hostes qui in urbem irruperant, the enemy having burst into the city.
- 3. The Latin agrees with English in the stylistic employment of the Second Person Singular in an indefinite sense (= 'one'). Cf. the English 'You can drive a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.' But in Latin this use is mainly confined to certain varieties of the Subjunctive, especially the Potential (§ 280), Jussive (§ 275), Deliberative (§ 277), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the sort included under § 302, 2, and 303. Examples:—

vidērēs, you could see;

ūtāre vīribus use your strength;

quid hoc homine facias, what are you to do with this man?

- mēns quoque et animus, nisi tamquam lūminī oleum īnstīllēs exstinguuntur senectūte, the intellect and mind too are extinguished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil into the lamp;
- tanto amore possessiones suas amplexi tenebant, ut ab eis membra divelli citius posse diceres, they clung to their possessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

357. I. To denote 'so many years, etc., afterwards or before' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with post and ante (see § 223), but has other forms of expression. Thus:—

post quinque annos, five years afterward;

paucos ante dies, a few days before;

ante quadriennium, four years before;

post diem quartum quam ab urbe discessimus, four days after we left the city;

ante tertium annum quam decesserat, three years before he had died.

2. The Latin seldom combines both Subject and Object with the same Infinitive; as,—

Romanos Hannibalem vīcisse constat.

Such a sentence would be ambiguous, and might mean either that the Romans had conquered Hannibal, or that Hannibal had conquered the Romans. Perspicuity was gained by the use of the Passive Infinitive; as,—

Romanos ab Hannibale victos esse constat, it is well established that the Romans were defeated by Hannibal.

PECULIARITIES IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF THE DATIVE.

- 358. 1. The English for does not always correspond to a Dative notion in Latin, but is often the equivalent of pro with the Ablative, viz. in the senses—
 - a) In defense of; as, —
 prō patriā morī, to die for one's country.
 - b) Instead of, in behalf of; as,—
 ünus prō omnibus dīxit, one spoke for all.
 haec prō lēge dicta sunt, these things were said in behalf
 of the law.
 - c) In proportion to; as,—

 pro multitudine hominum, in proportion to the population.

- 2. Similarly, English to when it indicates motion is rendered in Latin by ad.
 - a. Note, however, that the Latin may say either scribere ad aliquem, or scribere alicui, according as the idea of motion is or is not predominant. So in several similar expressions.
- 3. In the poets, verbs of mingling with, contending with, sometimes take the Dative. This construction is a Grecism. Thus:—

se miscet viris, he mingles with the men; contendis Homero, you contend with Homer.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE GENITIVE.

359. 1. The Possessive Genitive gives emphasis to the possessor, the Dative of Possessor emphasizes the fact of possession; as,—

hortus patris est, the garden is my father's; mihi hortus est, I possess a garden.

- 2. The Latin can say either stult or stultum est dicere, it is foolish to say; but Adjectives of one ending permit only the Genitive; as,—
- sapientis est haec secum reputare, it is the part of a wise man to consider this.

PART VI.

PROSODY.

- 360. Prosody treats of metres and versification.
- 361. Latin Verse. Latin Poetry was essentially different in character from English. In our own language poetry is based upon accent, and poetical form consists essentially in a certain succession of accented and unaccented syllables. Latin poetry, on the other hand, was based not upon accent, but upon quantity, so that with the Romans poetical form consisted in a certain succession of long and short syllables, i.e. of long and short intervals of time.

This fundamental difference in the character of English and Latin poetry is a natural result of the difference in character of the two languages. English is a strongly accented language in which quantity is relatively subordinate. Latin, on the other hand, was a quantitative language, in which accent was relatively subordinate.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

- 362. The general principles for the quantity of vowels and syllables have been given above in § 5. The following peculiarities are to be noted here:—
- 1. A vowel is usually short when followed by another vowel (§ 5. A. 2), but the following exceptions occur:—

- a) In the Genitive termination Ius (except alterIus); as, illIus, totIus. Yet the i may be short in poetry; as, illIus, totIus.
- b) In the Genitive and Dative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diel, aciel. But fidel, rel, spel (§ 52, 1).
- c) In fio, excepting fit and forms where i is followed by er. Thus: fiobam, fiat, fiunt; but fieri, fierem.
- d) In a few other words, especially words derived from the Greek; as, dīus, Aenēās, Darēus, hērōes, etc.
- 2. A diphthong is usually long (§ 5. B. 2), but the preposition prae in composition is often shortened before a vowel; as, praeacūtus.
- 3. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants (§ 5. B. 2) is long, even when one of the consonants is in the following word; as, terret populum. Occasionally the syllable is long when both consonants are in the following word; as, pro segete spīcās.
- 4. A vowel before j is regularly long, but is short in compounds of jugum; as, bijugis, quadrijugis.
- 5. Compounds of jacio, though written inicit, adioit, etc., have the first syllable long, as though written inj-, adj-. The actual pronunciation of such words is not clear. Roicio has 6.

Quantity of Final Syllables.

A. Final Syllables ending in a Vowel.

- 363. 1. Final a is mostly short, but is long in the following situations:
 - a) In the Ablative Singular of the First Declension; as, portã.
 - b) In the Imperative; as, laudā.
 - c) In indeclinable words (except ită, quiă); as, trīgintā, contrā, posteā, intereā, etc.
 - 2. Final e is usually short, but is long
 - a) In the Ablative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as,
 diē, rē; hence hodiē, quārē. Here belongs also famē
 (§ 59. 2. b).
 - b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation; as, mone, habe, etc.; yet occasionally cave, vale.
 - c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the Second Declension, along with ferē and fermē. Benĕ, malĕ, temerĕ, saepĕ have ē.
 - d) In ē, dē, mē, tē, sē, nē (not, lest), nē (verily).

- 3. Final i is usually long, but is short in nisi and quasi. Mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi, have regularly i, but sometimes i; yet always ibidem, ibique, ubique.
 - 4. Final o is regularly long, but is short
 - a) In egŏ, duŏ, modŏ (only), citŏ.
 - b) Rarely in the First Person Singular of the Verb, and in Nominatives of the Third Declension; as, amo, leo.
 - c) In a few compounds beginning with the Preposition pro; as, profundere, proficisci, profugere.
 - 5. Final u is always long.

B. Final Syllables ending in a Consonant.

- 364. I. Final syllables ending in any other consonant than s are short. The following words, however, have a long vowel: sāl, sōl, Lār, pār, vēr, fūr, dīc, dūc, lāc, ēn, nōn, quīn, sīn, sīc, cūr, hīc¹ (this). Also adverbs in c; as, hīc, hūc, istīc, illūc, etc.
 - 2. Final syllables in -as are long; as, terrās, amās.
 - 3. Final syllables in -es are regularly long, but are short
 - a) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of dental stems (§ 33) of the Third Declension which have a short penult in the Genitive; as, segĕs (segetis), obsĕs (obsidis), mīlĕs, dīvĕs. But a few have -ēs; vis. pēs, ariēs, abiēs, pariēs.
 - b) In ĕs (thou art), penĕs.
- 4. Final -os is usually long, but short in os (ossis), compos, impos.
 - 5. Final -is is usually short, but is long
 - a) In Plurals; as, portīs, hortīs, nobīs, vobīs, nūbīs (Acc.).
 - b) In the Nominative Singular of Nouns of the Third Declension with long vowel in the Penult of the Genitive; as, Samnīs (-ītis).
 - c) In the Second Person Singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation; as, audis.
 - d) In vis, force; is, thou goest; fis; sis; velis; nölis; vis, thou wilt; (māvis, quamvis, quivis, etc.).
 - 6. Final -us is usually short, but is long
 - a) In the Genitive Singular and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural of the Fourth Declension; as, frūctūs.

¹ Rarely hic.

- b) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of those nouns of the Third Declension in which the u belongs to the stem; as, palūs (-ūdis), servitūs (-ūtis), tellūs (-ūris).
- 365. Greek Nouns retain in Latin their original quantity; as, Aenēā, epitomē, Dēlos, Pallas, Simoīs, Salamīs, Dīdūs, Paridĭ, āēr, aethēr, orātēr, hērōās. Yet Greek nouns in $-\omega\rho$ regularly shorten the vowel; as, rhētŏr, Hectŏr.

VERSE-STRUCTURE.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

- **366.** 1. The metrical unit in versification is a short syllable, technically called a mora (*○*). A long syllable (<u>_</u>) is regarded as equivalent to two morae.
- 2. A Foot is a group of syllables. The following are the most important kinds of feet:—

FEET OF THREE MORAE.	FEET OF FOUR MORAE.
_ U Trochee.	_ ∪ ∪ Dactyl.

- 3. A Verse is a succession of feet.
- 4. The different kinds of verses are named Trochaic, Iambic, Dactylic, Anapaestic, according to the foot which forms the basis of their structure.
- 5. Iotus. In every foot the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence. This prominence is called iotus. It is denoted thus: $\angle \bigcirc \bigcirc ;$ $\angle \bigcirc .$
- 6. Thesis and Arsis. The syllable which receives the ictus is called the thesis; the rest of the foot is called the arsis.
- 7. Elision. Final syllables ending in a vowel, a diphthong, or -m are regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or h. In reading, we ordinarily omit the elided syllable entirely. Probably the ancients slurred the words together in some way. This may be indicated as follows: corpore in uno; multum ille et; monstrum horrendum; causae frarum.
 - a. Omission of elision is called **hiatus**. It occurs especially before and after monosyllabic Interjections; as, **Ö** et praesidium.

¹ Ictus was not accent, — neither stress accent nor musical accent, — but was simply the quantitative prominence inherent in a long syllable.

- 8. The ending of a word within a foot is called a caesūra (cutting). Every verse usually has one prominent caesura. The ending of a word and foot together within the verse is called a diaeresis.
- 9. Verses are distinguished as Catalectic or Acatalectic. A Catalectic verse is one in which the last foot is not complete, but lacks one or more syllables; an Acatalectic verse has its last foot complete.
- 10. At the end of a verse a slight pause occurred. Hence the final syllable may be either long or short (syllaba anceps), and may terminate in a vowel or m, even though the next verse begins with a vowel.
- 11. Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapaestic verses are further designated as dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, according to the number of dipodies (pairs of feet) which they contain. Dactylic verses are measured by single feet, and are designated as tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter, accordingly.

SPECIAL PECULIARITIES.

367. 1. Synizēsis (Synaeresis). Two successive vowels in the interior of a word are often united into a long syllable; as,—

aureīs, deinde, anteīre, deesse.

- 2. Diastole. A syllable usually short is sometimes long; as, vidēt, audīt.
- Systole. A syllable usually long is sometimes short; as, stetěrunt.
 - a. Diastole and Systole are not mere arbitrary processes. They usually represent an earlier pronunciation which had passed out of vogue in the ordinary speech.
- 4. After a consonant, i and u sometimes become j and v. The preceding syllable then becomes long; as,—

abjete for abiete; genva for genua.

- Sometimes v becomes u; as, —
 silua for silva: dissoluō for dissolvō.
- 6. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable. Such a verse is called an **Hypermeter**. The extra syllable ends in a vowel or -m, and is united with the initial vowel or h of the next verse by **Synapheia**. Thus:—

. ignārī hominumque locorumque $\widehat{}$ errāmus.

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7. Tmesis (cutting). Compound words are occasionally separated into their elements; as,—

quō mē cunque rapit tempestās, for quōcunque, etc.

8. Syncope. A short vowel is sometimes dropped between two consonants; as,—
repostus for repositus.

THE DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.

368. I. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. But in all the feet except the fifth a spondee (___) may take the place of the dactyl. The sixth foot may be either a spondee or a trochee, since the final syllable of a verse may be either long or short (syllaba anceps). The following represents the scheme of the verse:—

$$\angle \infty$$
, $\angle \infty$, $\angle \infty$, $\angle \infty$, $\angle \omega$, $\angle \omega$.

2. Sometimes we find a spondee in the fifth foot. Such verses are called Spondaic. A dactyl usually stands in the fourth place, and the fifth and sixth feet are generally made up of a quadrisyllable; as, —

armātumque aurō circumspicit Ōrīōna cāra deūm subolēs, māgnum Jovis incrēmentum.

- 3. Caesura.
 - a) The favorite position of the caesura in the Dactylic Hexameter is after the thesis of the third foot; as,—
 arma virumque cano || Trojae qui primus ab orīs.
 - b) Less frequently the caesura occurs after the thesis of the fourth foot, usually accompanied by another in the second foot; as,—

Inde torō || pater Aenēās || sīc ōrsus ab altō est.

c) Sometimes the caesura occurs between the two short syllables of the third foot; as,—

Ō passī graviōra || dabit deus hīs quoque fīnem.

This caesura is called Feminine as opposed to the caesura after a long syllable, which is called Masculine (as under a and b).

d) A pause sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot. This is called the Bucolic Diaeresis, as it was borrowed by the Romans from the Bucolic poetry of the Greeks. Thus: sõlstitium pecorī dēfendite; || jam venit aestās.

DACTYLIC PENTAMETER.

369. I. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts, each of which contains two dactyls, followed by a long syllable. Spondees may take the place of the dactyls in the first part, but not in the second. The long syllable at the close of the first half of the verse always ends a word. The scheme is the following:—

2. The Pentameter is never used alone, but only in connection with the Hexameter. The two arranged alternately form the so-called Elegiac Distich. Thus:—

Vergilium vīdī tantum, nec amāra Tibullō Tempus amīcitiae fāta dedēre meae.

IAMBIC MEASURES.

370. I. The most important Iambic verse is the Iambic Trimeter (§ 366, II) called also Senarius. This is an acatalectic verse. It consists of six Iambi. Its pure form is:—

O_O_O_O_O_O_O_O_ Beātus ille quī procul negōtiīs.

The Caesura usually occurs in the third foot; less frequently in the fourth.

- 2. In place of the Iambus, a Tribrach $(\cup \cup \cup)$ may stand in any foot but the last. In the odd feet (first, third, and fifth) may stand a Spondee, Dactyl, or Anapaest, though the last two are less frequent. Sometimes a Proceleusmatic $(\cup \cup \cup \cup)$ occurs.
- 3. In the Latin comic writers, Plautus and Terence, great freedom is permitted, and the various equivalents of the Iambus, 2212. the Dactyl, Anapaest, Spondee, Tribrach, Proceleusmatic, are freely admitted in any foot except the last.

SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. JULIAN CALENDAR.

- 371. I. The names of the Roman months are: Jānuārius, Februārius, Mārtius, Aprīlis, Māius, Jūnius, Jūlius (Quīntīlis¹ prior to 46 B.C.), Augustus (Sextīlis¹ before the Empire), September, Octōber, November, December. These words are properly Adjectives in agreement with mēnsis understood.
 - 2. Dates were reckoned from three points in the month:
 - a) The Calends, the first of the month.
 - b) The Nones, usually the fifth of the month, but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.
 - c) The Ides, usually the thirteenth of the month, but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
- 3. From these points dates were reckoned backward; consequently all days after the Ides of any month were reckoned as so many days before the Calends of the month next following.
- 4. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides of any month is designated as prīdiē Kalendās, Nonās, Īdūs. The second day before was designated as diē tertio ante Kalendās, Nonās, etc. Similarly the third day before was designated as diē quārto, and so on. These designations, of course, are arithmetically inaccurate, but the Romans reckoned both ends of the series.
- 5. In indicating dates, the name of the month is added in the form of an Adjective agreeing with **Kalendās**, **Nonās**, **Īdūs**. Various forms of expression occur, of which that given under d) is most common:—
 - a) diē quīntō ante Īdūs Mārtiās;
 - j) quīntō ante Īdūs Mārtiās;
 - c) quīntō (V) Īdūs Mārtiās;
 - d) ante diem quīntum (V) Īdūs Mārtiās.

¹ Originally the Roman year began with March. This explains the names QuintIlis, Sextilis, September, etc., fifth month, sixth month, etc.

6. These designations may be treated as nouns and combined with the prepositions in, ad, ex; as,—

ad ante diem IV Kalendās Octobrēs, up to the 28th of September. ex ante diem quintum Idūs Octobres, from the 11th of October.

7. In leap year the 25th was reckoned as the extra day in February. The 24th was designated as ante diem VI Kalendäs Märtiäs, and the 25th as ante diem bis VI Kal. Märt.

372.

CALENDAR.

Days of the Month.	March, May, July, October.		January, August, December.		April, June, September, November. KALENDIS,		February. KALENDĪS.	
1								
2	VI.	Nonās.	IV.	Nonās.	IV.	Nonās.	IV.	Nonās.
3	v.	"	III.	**	III.	"	III.	**
4	IV.	**	Prīdie Nonas.		Prīdiē Nōnās.		Prīdiē Nonās.	
5	III.	"	Nonis.		Nōnīs.		Nonis.	
6	Prīdiē	Nonās.	VIII. Īdūs.		VIII.	Īdūs.	VIII.	Īdūs.
7	Nonis	i.	VII.	"	VII.	**	VII.	44
8	VIII.	Īdūs.	VI.	"	VI.	**	VI.	**
9	VII.	**	v.	"	v.	**	v.	"
IO	VI.	"	IV.	**	IV.	**	IV.	"
11	v.	"	111.	**	III.	"	III.	"
12	ıv.	**	Prīdiē Īdūs.		Prīdiē Īdūs.		Prīdiē Īdūs.	
13	III.	**	ĪDIBUS.		ĪDIBUS.		ĪDIBUS,	
14	Pridiē	Īdūs.	XIX. Kalend.		XVIII.	Kalend.	XVI.	Kalend.
15	IDIBUS	3.	XVIII.	**	XVII.	"	xv.	"
16	XVII.	Kalend.	XVII.	"	XVI.	"	XIV.	"
17	XVI.	44	XVI.	"	XV.	"	XIII.	**
18	XV.	"	xv.	"	XIV.	"	XII.	44
19	XIV.	**	XIV.	44	XIII.	"	XI.	44
20	XIII.	**	XIII.	44	XII.	"	X.	"
21	XII.	"	XII.	"	XI.	"	IX.	et ·
22	XI.	44	XI.	44	X.	"	VIII.	**
23	X.	"	X.	44	IX.	"	VII.	44
-3 24	IX.	44	IX.	"	VIII.	"	VI.	44
25	VIII.	44	VIII.	**	VII.	"	V. (VI.)	۰ "
-3 26	VII.	"	VII.	"	VI.	44	IV. (V.	•
27	VI.	"	VI.	**	v.	"	III. (IV	
-/ 28	v.	"	v.	**	IV.	"	,	.(III. Kal.)
29	iv.	**	IV.	44	III.	"		rid. Kal.)
30	111.	"	III.	**	Deidie Maland		,	
31		Kalend.	Pridië I	Calend) (Ei			d forms are p-year.)

II. ABBREVIATIONS OF PROPER NAMES.

373. A. = Aulus.Mam. = Māmercus. App. = Appius. $N_{\cdot} = N_{umerius}$ C. = Gāius. P. = Pūblius. Cn. = Gnaeus.O. = Quintus.Sex. = Sextus. D. = Decimus. $K_{\cdot} = \mathbf{Kaes\delta}_{\cdot}$ Ser. = Servius. I.. = Lūcius. Sp. = Spurius.M. = Mārcus. T. = Titus. M'. = Mānius. Ti. - Tiberius.

III. FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.

A. Figures of Syntax.

- 374. I. Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words; as,—sed enim audierat, but (she was afraid), for she had heard, etc.
- 2. Brachýlogy is a brief or condensed form of expression; as, ut ager sine cultūrā frūctuōsus esse non potest, sīc sine doctrīnā animus, as a field cannot be productive without cultivation, so the mind (cannot be productive) without learning.

Special varieties of Brachylogy are -

- a) Zeugma, in which one verb is made to stand for two; as, minīs aut blandīmentīs corrupta, = (terrified) by threats or corrupted by flattery.
- b) Compendiary Comparison, by which a modifier of an object is mentioned instead of the object itself; as,
 - dissimilis erat Chares eorum et factis et moribus, lit.

 Chares was different from their conduct and character,

 i.e. Chares's conduct and character were different, etc.
- 3. Pléonasm is an unnecessary fullness of expression; as,—prius praedīcam, lit. I will first say in advance.
- 4. Hendíadys ($\tilde{\epsilon} \nu$ $\delta \iota \tilde{\alpha}$ $\delta vo \hat{\nu} \nu$, one through two) is the use of two nouns joined by a conjunction, in the sense of a noun modified by a Genitive or an Adjective; as,—

febris et aestus, the heat of fever; celeritate cursuque, by swift running.

- 5. Prolépsis, or Anticipation, is the introduction of an epithet in advance of the action which makes it appropriate; as,—
- submersās obrue puppēs, lit. overwhelm their submerged ships, i.e. overwhelm and sink their ships.
 - a. The name Prolepsis is also applied to the introduction of a noun or pronoun as object of the main clause where we should expect it to stand as subject of a subordinate clause. Thus:
 - nosti Marcellum quam tardus sit, you know how slow Marcellus is (lit. you know Marcellus, how slow he is). Both varieties of Prolepsis are chiefly confined to poetry.
- 6. Anacolúthon is a lack of grammatical consistency in the construction of the sentence; as, —
- tum AncI filiI . . . impēnsius els indignitās crēscere, then the sons of Ancus . . . their indignation increased all the more.
- 7. **Hýsteron Próteron** consists in the inversion of the logical order of two words or phrases; as,—
- moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus = let us rush into the midst of arms and die.

B. Figures of Rhetoric.

375. 1. Litotes is the use of two negatives for an emphatic affirmative; as,—

haud parum labōris, no little toil (i.e. much toil); nōn ignōrō, I am not ignorant (i.e. I am well aware).

- 2. Oxymóron is the combination of contradictory conceptions; as,—
 sapiēns Insānia, wise folly.
- 3. Alliteration is the employment of a succession of words presenting frequent repetition of the same letter (mostly initial); as, sēnsim sine sēnsū aetās senēscit.
- 4. Onomatopoia is the suiting of sound to sense; as,—
 quadrupedante putrem sonitū quatit ungula campum, 'And shake
 with horny hoofs the solid ground.'

INDEX TO THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS.

NOTE. — Compounds are not given unless they present some special irregularity. The references are to sections.

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